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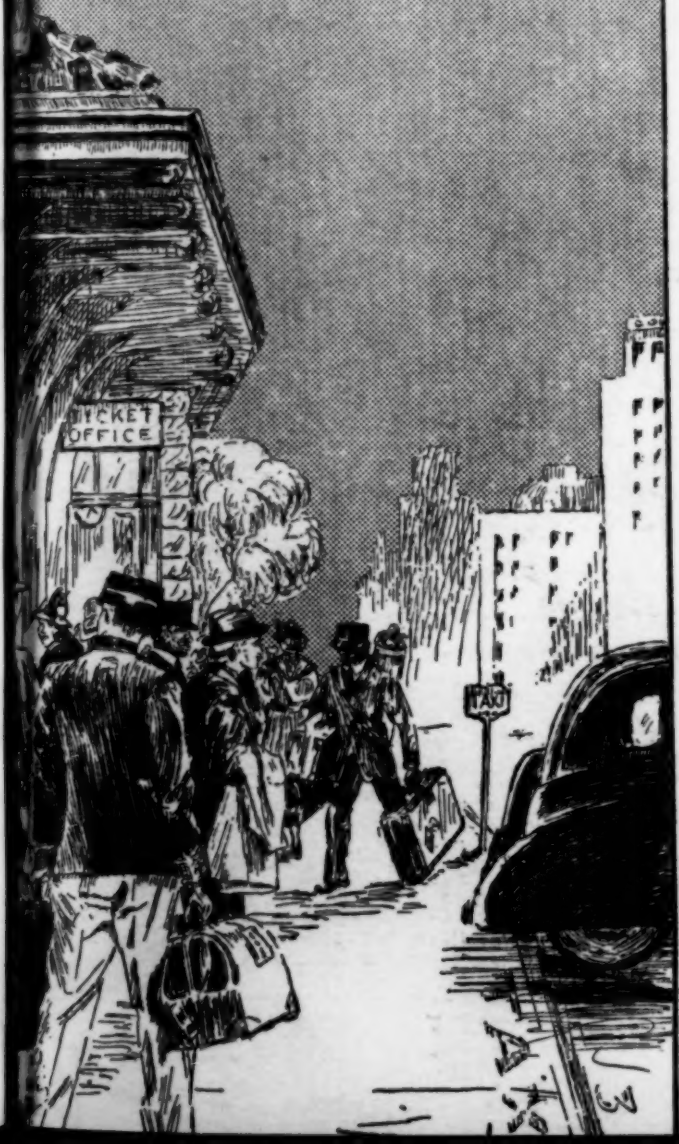

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U. S. Department of Labor

BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

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MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

DECEMBER 1937 VOL. 45, NO. 6

HUGH S. HANNA, *Editor*

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MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

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This Issue in Brief

Tipping as a Factor in Wages.

THE practice of tipping, aside from undesirable social implications, results in serious difficulties in the administration of various social-insurance laws. For instance, in the case of unemployment insurance the benefits are usually in the form of a percentage of normal wages, and it may make a very great difference to the worker in a "tipping" industry whether tips are included as a part of his normal wage income. Thus, if the unemployment benefit is calculated as 50 percent of wages, a waiter who receives $10 a week in cash wages and $10 in tips would receive only a $5 weekly benefit if tips are excluded whereas he would get $10 per week if tips are included. There is no uniformity on this point in the 51 existing State unemployment-insurance laws, 34 definitely including tips as part of wages while 5 specify that tips are not to be included as part of the wage income on which benefits are computed. Page 1303.

Bootleg Mining.

BOOTLEG mining of anthracite in Pennsylvania in the year 1936–37 gave employment to about 13,000 men, who, with their dependents, represented a total of about 45,000 persons dependent on the bootleg-coal industry. The practice, however, is confined to a limited section of the anthracite field, and within Schuylkill County and the southeastern portion of Northumberland County there are a number of communities in which illegal mining is literally the sole important means of support for the working population. The Anthracite Coal Industry Commission of Pennsylvania, in a recent report, estimates that the average earnings of these mine workers are about $19.70 per week. Page 1323.

Sickness Insurance, Netherlands.

COMPULSORY sickness insurance of wage earners in the Netherlands has been in force since 1930. The system covers workers whose wages do not exceed 3,000 florins per year and provides for cash benefits for a maximum of 156 days per year. No medical benefits are provided except for maternity cases, in which medical attendance at confinement is provided in addition to the cash benefit amounting to the full amount of the daily wage for 6 weeks before confinement and for the duration of incapacity afterward up to a maximum of 6 months. The ordinary sickness benefit amounts usually to 80 percent of the daily wage. The insurance fund is maintained by contributions by employers and the insured. The State makes no contribution. Voluntary insurance is open to workers who have ceased to be compulsorily insured, and to certain other persons. Page 1345.

Cooperatives in Northern Wisconsin.

NEARLY $4,000,000 worth of business was done through cooperative channels in the Superior, Wis., district in 1936, from which members benefited by a return in patronage refunds of over $68,000. The local "Co-ops" are

an integral part of the lives of the members there and many needs are supplied through them. Being the headquarters, also, of two cooperative wholesales, a regional oil association, two cooperative publishing associations, three regional educational associations, and a cooperative park association—the members of all of which are the local cooperative societies throughout Minnesota, northern Wisconsin, northern Michigan, and even the Dakotas—this district exerts a wide influence in the cooperative movement in the United States. Page 1327.

Wages and Hours in the Granite Industry.

WORKERS engaged in quarrying granite worked an average of 41.8 hours per week and earned 53.7 cents per hour and $22.47 per week in August 1937; those engaged in finishing the granite had corresponding averages of 39.1 hours per week, 75.5 cents per hour, and $29.50 per week. These figures relate only to establishments quarrying and finishing dimension granite, that is, stone cut to specific sizes and shapes; the broken or crushed stone branch of the industry is not included. Page 1465.

Entrance Wage Rates of Common Labor.

THE average hourly entrance rate of common laborers in the United States in July 1937 was 51.2 cents, according to the annual survey recently completed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics covering more than 200,000 laborers in 20 important industries. The average was 38.9 cents for the Southern States and 55.3 cents for the Northern States. In the North the entrance rates for colored laborers were not less, on the whole, than for white, while in the South the rates for colored were considerably lower. Among the manufacturing industries covered, the highest hourly rate (61.1 cents) was in petroleum refining and the lowest (36.4 cents) in the fertilizer industry. Page 1491.

Child Labor.

CHILD LABOR in the past 10 years has fluctuated directly with business conditions except when legal restrictions, either State or Federal, have been drastic enough to close practically the whole labor market to children under 16. In those areas where the State minimum-age standard was not raised during 1936, the number of children 14 and 15 years of age leaving school for work during the last 6 months of that year increased almost 50 percent as compared with the last 6 months of 1935. On the other hand, in the two States, New York and Rhode Island, where a basic 16-year minimum age went into effect by State law during the year, there was a decrease of 94 percent in the number of children under 16 going to work in occupations for which employment certificates were required. The laws of 38 States still permit children of 14 or 15 years of age to leave school for work. These and other facts regarding employment of young workers are brought out by a report prepared by the Children's Bureau showing the number of children going to work annually in occupations regulated by child-labor laws. Page 1371.

Prison-Made Goods.

THE movement to eliminate competition between prison and private industry is meeting with success in the opinion of the Prison Industries Reorganization Administration. A recent survey of existing laws shows that 12 States prohibit altogether the sale or distribution of prison-made goods (including imports) on the open market, 16 additional States have enacted general prohibitions with certain exceptions, and 8 States, including 3 of the foregoing, have legislation specifically prohibiting the sale or distribution of imported prison-made goods. In all, 33 States have placed some restriction on the sale of prison products and every State has laws regulating the use of prison labor and the manufacture of goods in prisons. Page 1424.

Special Articles

TIPPING AS A FACTOR IN WAGES

By RAE L. NEEDLEMAN, *Social Security Board*

DESPITE the fact that in the United States tipping has always been looked upon with disfavor by labor organizations and to a considerable extent by the public in general, the system has become entrenched. A large number of workers are dependent upon tips for some portion of their income, and at least 10 industries or trades have come to be regarded as definitely tipping trades.

The chief objections to the practice have been that tipping provides only a precarious way of earning a livelihood and that it violates the principles of a minimum wage.

The subject of tipping as a source of income comes up for examination whenever it is necessary to determine what constitutes wages, i. e., whether the income from tips should or should not be regarded as part of the wage. The problem of the relationship of tips to wages first arose in connection with benefits—based upon the wages—under the workmen's compensation laws. Because of the indefinite provisions of some of the State acts, the courts have been called upon, in numerous cases, to pass upon the point. The question has also arisen in connection with the minimum-wage laws and the adoption of the N. R. A. codes. It has recently been revived with the establishment of the social-security program and the passage of the State unemployment-compensation acts. Here again, as under the workmen's compensation laws, benefits to the worker are directly affected by the status accorded to tips.

Origin and Characteristics of Tipping

There are numerous versions of the origin of tips. The earliest prototype of the tip seems to have been in the practice of charity and good-will offerings. The story of the good Samaritan, one writer tells us, shows that tipping was practiced in Biblical times, "for did he not bestow upon the boniface a penny?" [1] Another version has it that tipping dates back to the Middle Ages and is an outgrowth of wardship and paternalism;[2] the "master" or the lord of the manor would give his servant or laborer a few extra coins either in appreciation of a good deed or out of compassion. More generally, however, writers on the subject agree that the origin of the tip was the gift in appreciation of extra-good services rendered. This seems to be borne out by the term itself.

[1] The Canadian Magazine, April 1911, p. 534: The Philosophy of Tipping.

[2] Gunton's Magazine, July 1896, p. 13: Economic Effects of Tipping.

The French word for tip, "*pourboire*", the German word "*Trinkgeld*," and the Spanish phrase "*para beber*", mean drink money; but the Italian expression for tip, "*buona mano*", means good hand. In England, also a tip was sometimes called a "beer." Even according to this concept an element of inferiority seems to have been connected with the receipt of tips, for, ordinarily, one does not offer drink money to a person of one's own rank. One story has it that in England the word "tip" originated in the latter part of the eighteenth century when a certain coffee house in London placed at the entrance a colored box with a slit in it and with the letters "T. I. P." ("to insure promptness"). Anyone wishing quick service would drop a penny or halfpenny into the box, whereupon the waiter would rush forward to take his order.[3]

English dictionaries agree that the verb "to tip" is of obscure origin, that it originated in slang, and that as far back as 1610 it was used in the sense of letting one have or of giving a coin or sum of money. The Oxford English dictionary defines tips as "a small present of money given to an inferior, especially to a servant or an employee of another for service rendered or expected; a gratuity, a douceur."

From the standpoint of the tip as part of the wage income, tips may be grouped into two categories—those that are not a consideration in determining the wage contract, and those that do enter as a factor in the determination of wages.

The first category includes the occasional tip offered in appreciation of extra-good service or in the expectation of good service, in occupations where tipping is not customary. The worker does not expect a tip but nevertheless may go out of his way to do an extra service for a customer of his employer, and receive a tip in consequence.

The second category includes the habitual tip, the tip that is tendered because of custom and tradition, the tip that is expected. It is this factor of expectancy that determines the wage contract, for in occupations where tipping prevails a worker,[4] in accepting a position, knows that his wages will be supplemented by tips. In this case the giver of the tip helps to pay the remuneration of the worker but is under no legal obligation to do so. The possibility that the customer might receive poor service if he were not to give a tip does not make the tip compulsory. Moreover, the usual tip is not tendered as an inducement to better service. Hotel and restaurant patrons tip even though they may not intend ever to revisit the place.

The so-called "service charge", whereby an additional sum (usually a percent of the price of the service) is paid, is not a tip but a part of the price of the service and carries the same legal force of payment as the price of the purchase.

[3] Canadian Magazine, April 1911, p. 534; and Ladies' Home Journal, February 1905, p. 20.

[4] Tips are sometimes given to proprietors, but such tips have no significance from the standpoint of the relationship to wages.

In some instances the tip occupies a border-line status between a tip and a fee. There is a question, for example, whether the purchase of a railroad ticket includes the service of carrying the luggage from the station door to the train. If the company should disclaim the obligation to furnish the particular service, the customer would be buying that service from the porter, in which case the sum of money given to the porter would be a fee for the service of carrying the luggage and not a tip,[5] and the status of the porter would be that of entrepreneur.

In the final analysis the tip may be regarded as a substitute for a wage payment if the tip is expected to materialize. The difference, however, between a tip and wages is that tips can materialize only upon the voluntary action of the tipper. There is no obligation on the part of the tipper to tip or on the part of the employer to reimburse a worker for failure to receive tips.

Workers in Tipping Employments

A survey of industries and occupations in which tipping is prevalent at the present time and of the number of workers in these industries and occupations reveals the following data for 1935, except that the figure for bootblacks is for 1930:[6]

	Number of workers [7]
Restaurants with table service	333,037
Hotels	291,165
Barber shops	80,309
Barber and beauty shops	11,114
Beauty parlors	78,062
Railroad dining rooms and hotels	6,205
Pullman porters	6,923
Station porters	6,000
Taxicab drivers (exclusive of independent entrepreneurs)	56,859
Total	869,674
Bootblacks (as of 1930)	18,784
Grand total for all groups	888,458

[5] Formerly it was clearly understood that such service was included in the price of a ticket. However, in recent years the railroad companies have advanced the claim that station porters are not in their employ but are independent entrepreneurs, and that companies furnish the porters the privilege of working on their premises as a special convenience to the company's customers, for which privilege the company takes the right to regulate the hours of work of station porters, dismiss them for discourtesy or other misbehavior to the customers, and stipulate the wearing of uniforms. The Railroad Mediation Board, however, has issued certifications to the effect that station porters are employees of the railroad companies.

[6] Data for hotels, restaurants, and barber shops, barber and beauty shops, and beauty parlors are from the 1935 Census of Business, as follows: Hotels, pp. 2-16; Retail Distribution, Vol. III, pp. 1-61; and Service Establishments, Vol. II, pp. 4-52. Data for railroad dining rooms and hotels are from Interstate Commerce Commission, Report, Wage Statistics of Class I Steam Railways in the United States, 1935; for Pullman porters, from annual report of the Pullman Co. to the Interstate Commerce Commission, 1935; for taxicab drivers, data supplied by Income Section, U. S. Department of Commerce; for bootblacks, Fifteenth Census of the United States 1930, Vol. IV, p. 60. There is no published information available for station porters, but it is estimated by A. Philip Randolph, president of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters, that there are approximately 6,000 such porters (letter to author, May 24, 1937).

[7] See footnote on page 1306.

The number of workers in the first six groups in the tabulation above is not confined to those receiving tips but includes all workers in these industries and occupations. Only scanty information is available regarding the proportion of workers not receiving tips in these six groups. In barber shops, barber and beauty shops, and beauty parlors, the proportion of nonservice workers is relatively small, but in hotels and restaurants there is a considerable proportion of nonservice workers who do not receive tips. (A service worker is regarded as one receiving tips and a nonservice worker as one not receiving tips.)

A survey made by the United States Women's Bureau in 1934 (its Bulletin No. 123) covering 4,764 workers in the hotel and restaurant industries indicated that the proportion of female service workers to all female workers was 46 percent in hotels and 48 percent in restaurants. Another survey, made in New York State, covering 16,158 workers in these two industries, gave 46.9 percent as the proportion of women receiving tips and 4.9 percent as the proportion of women receiving "some" or occasional tips.[8]

From the New York study it appeared that of the female workers in these two industries, waitresses were the principal group of workers receiving tips from patrons, and chambermaids followed next in order. Some workers from every occupation, ranging from less than 1 percent of kitchen workers to 89 percent of waitresses, were reported as receiving tips, but there were also workers in every occupation, including waitresses and chambermaids, who reported that they did not receive tips.

Estimates of the number of workers employed in establishments having eight or more workers show that the occupations in which the worker receives tips occur in industries consisting mainly of small establishments.

Table 1 gives the total number of establishments, the estimated number of establishments employing eight or more workers, the total number of workers and the estimated number of workers employed in establishments of eight or more.[9]

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[7] The figure for the restaurant group includes only table-service restaurants, since it was thought that generally there is very little tipping in self-service eating establishments. The hotel group covers both seasonal and year-round hotels, including apartment hotels, but does not include residential hotels catering exclusively to permanent guests, nor does it include lodging houses, dormitories, and similar places. The group of barber shops does not include barber services operated in connection with another business, but includes concessions which operate entirely independently. The same applies to barber and beauty shops and beauty parlors. Barber and beauty shops consist of establishments which operate beauty parlors in connection with a barber shop. It was estimated by the Income Section of the U. S. Department of Commerce that there were in 1935, 1.53 drivers to every cab working for companies, 1 driver to every cab among entrepreneurs, and 2 drivers to every cab among employees working for independent entrepreneurs.

[8] New York Department of Labor. Bureau of Women in Industry and Minimum Wage. Report of the Industrial Commission to the Hotel and Restaurant Wage Board, Appendix G, p. 348.

[9] The method used in estimating the number of workers in such establishments is the one developed by W. S. Woytinsky, of the Committee on Social Security of the Social Science Research Council (to be published).

TABLE 1.—*Employment in Establishments with 8 or More Workers, by Industry and Occupation, 1935* [1]

Industry or occupation	Establishments			Workers (full time and part time)		
	Total	Having 8 or more workers		Total	In plants with 8 or more workers	
		Estimated number	Percent of total		Estimated number	Percent of total
Restaurants with table service	68,761	10,561	15.4	333,037	202,827	60.9
Hotels	28,822	6,022	20.9	291,165	229,258	78.7
Barber shops	121,153	253	.2	80,309	2,617	3.3
Barber and beauty shops	4,301	185	4.3	11,114	2,483	22.3
Beauty parlors	61,355	1,222	2.0	78,062	17,052	21.8
All 5 groups	284,392	18,243	6.4	793,687	454,237	57.2
Railroad dining rooms and hotels	(2)	(2)	100.0	6,205	6,205	100.0
Pullman porters	(2)	(2)	100.0	6,923	6,923	100.0
Taxicab drivers				56,859	41,094	72.3
All 8 groups				863,674	508,459	58.9

[1] For sources of data see footnote 6, p. 1305. [2] Includes all of the 144 class I steam railroads.

In given States the proportion of smaller establishments and the proportion of workers employed in such establishments might be slightly lower than the figure for the country as a whole, shown above. The difference, if any, is not likely to be considerable.

Thus, in a State having an unemployment compensation law which applies to persons employed in establishments of eight or more workers, approximately 50 percent of the workers in these five industries are likely to be affected by unemployment compensation, assuming that the proportion is the same as in 1935. In States whose laws apply to smaller establishments a larger proportion of workers is likely to be affected.

However, while at any given time only a certain number of persons in these industries may be affected by unemployment compensation, the problem is one which concerns all of the workers in these occupations because of the fact that workers continually change from one establishment to another. Today Mary Jones works in an establishment which employs three workers in State X, let us say, whose unemployment compensation law covers employers of four or more workers; but next month Miss Jones may work in an establishment which employs four or five workers, in which case she becomes included under unemployment compensation.

Earnings From Tips

Total earnings from tips received by workers in occupations where tipping prevails can be estimated for each industry and occupation except for taxi drivers, station porters, and bootblacks.

However, the total amount of tips received by all workers in a given occupation or a given industry fails to give an idea of the individual worker's earnings from tips. To obtain a conception of what a given worker receives in tips, it is necessary to determine the average per capita earnings from tips, but since the number of workers includes

some who do not receive tips as well as those who work on a part-time basis, estimated per capita earnings from tips would not in every case be representative.

In barber shops, barber and beauty shops, and beauty parlors there is but a small proportion of nonservice workers. It may therefore be assumed that per capita earnings from tips in these industries would give a fairly good conception of such earnings, provided that the basis used for estimating the total amount of tips as 5 percent of total receipts is correct. The same is true with respect to earnings from tips of Pullman porters and railroad-dining-room workers. If tips were allocated to all of these workers equally in each industry or occupation and if part-time workers were given the same status as full-time workers with respect to tips, the per capita annual income from tips in 1935 would have been $130 in barber shops, $91 in barber and beauty shops, $110 in beauty parlors, $144 for Pullman porters, and $233 for workers in railroad dining rooms and railroad hotels.[a]

Average per capita income does not, however, present a realistic picture of the income from tips to the individual worker, since it fails to give the range of income from tips in each group. In some instances income from tips may be trivial but in others a person may depend upon tips for a livelihood.

A sample study made by the United States Women's Bureau in the winter of 1933–34 of Employment Conditions in Beauty Shops (Bull. No. 133) in four cities, Philadelphia, New Orleans, St. Louis, and Columbus, covering 465 shops and 1,655 workers gives some conception of weekly earnings from tips.

The average weekly earnings from tips of three-fifths of the women reporting was in the $1 and under $4 category. Moreover, 11 percent of the 1,146 women reported that no tips had been received in the week for which earning data had been reported, and 15 percent of the women estimated the amount of tips as less than $1 per week.

The amount and frequency of tips varied considerably in the four cities, as indicated below:

Columbus	38 percent earned less than $1 per week. 30 percent earned $1 or more per week.
New Orleans	14 percent earned less than $1 per week. 82 percent earned $1 or more per week.
Philadelphia	19 percent earned less than $2 per week. 79 percent earned $2 or more per week.
St. Louis	16 percent earned less than $1 per week. 69 percent earned $1 or more per week.

[a] Tips were computed as follows: For hotels, restaurants, barber shops, barber and beauty shops, beauty parlors, and railroad dining cars the amount of tips was estimated on the basis of total receipts in these establishments. For Pullman porters estimates were based on the proportion of passengers who tip and the amount of the average tip. The method is the same as the one used by the Income Section of the United States Department of Commerce in its estimates of per capita income of these workers. The ratios used for these estimates were: 7.5 percent of receipts in restaurants, hotels, and railroad dining rooms, and 5 percent in barber shops, barber and beauty shops, and beauty parlors. The Income Section has been using 10 percent of receipts for hotels, restaurants, and railroad dining rooms, but its recent studies indicate that tips in these occupations probably average 7.5 percent of receipts.

Of the 165 men reporting, 8 percent received no tips and the most usual amount was $1 and under $4 per week, but a larger proportion of men than women received $5 or more per week.

In the restaurant and hotel industries the available information does not afford a basis for estimating the per capita earnings from tips. While it is known that there is a considerable proportion of nonservice workers in these two industries, it is difficult to obtain an approximation of that proportion.

In the New York study, previously mentioned, a group of waitresses and chambermaids who had indicated on a previous questionnaire that they received tips were asked to keep a record for 1 week of the amount of tips received. Data obtained covered 105 women—71 waitresses and 34 chambermaids—working in a number of establishments in New York City. The median earnings from tips of the 71 waitresses for the week were $7.69. Of the 34 chambermaids, 9 had received no tips in that week. The earnings from tips of the remaining 25 chambermaids ranged from less than $1 to $3.35, and 11 of these 25 received from 25 to 75 cents for the week.

Data on earnings from tips obtained from employers of a 5-and-10-cent store chain for 67 waitresses, showed that the median earnings from tips for the week were $3.25. In two other establishments, also in New York City, which added a 10-percent service charge to the customer's check, the waitresses receiving the service charge instead of tips, the median earnings were somewhat higher. In one establishment employing 117 waitresses, the median earnings from the service charge were $7.97. In another establishment employing 25 waitresses the median earnings were $9.38.

In view of the fact that New York City is regarded as a community in which people tip most generously, and that the workers canvassed were those who received tips, any average for the country which includes small communities and includes establishments where patrons tip only occasionally should be lower than the earnings received by the workers in the New York study.

Not in every case is there a direct relationship between wages paid and amount of tips received. As a group, however, waitresses who received tips had a median week's earnings of $3 less than waitresses who had no tips, but there were also waitresses who were being paid the same wages irrespective of whether or not they received tips. This was also true of other occupations. The survey showed, however, that the tendency has been to pay lower wages to those workers receiving tips and higher wages to those who do not receive tips. One restaurant chain in New York City paid higher hourly wages to counter waitresses in those of its stores in which the waitresses had fewer opportunities to receive tips. It was stated, for example, by a number of proprietors in seasonal hotels that wages paid were based on amounts that workers would probably receive in tips during the

season. It was also found that some establishments paid their workers no wages or only a nominal wage, but guaranteed them a certain amount per week. If earnings from tips did not equal that amount, the employer would supplement the difference.

There is no published information available regarding the earnings of station porters, as a large number of these porters receive no wages and are, therefore, not on the company's pay roll. Those who are on the company's pay roll generally do janitor work in addition to porter service and are not classified as porters.

For the most part, station porters rely on tips as the sole source of income. With the exception of the Christmas season, station porters are said to average $2 a day from tips.[10] Information is also not available as to weekly or annual earnings of taxicab drivers.[11]

Two sample studies of taxicab drivers, one made in the District of Columbia, covering a 2-year period, 1931–33, and one made in four cities in Ohio in 1934, give the percentages that tips constitute of total earnings. In the Washington study, the average value of tips was 18 percent of gross earnings and 42.4 percent of net earnings;[12] in the Ohio study tips of taxicab drivers of six companies in Columbus averaged 8.7 percent of net earnings and 2.4 percent of gross daily earnings. In the other three cities—Cincinnati, Cleveland, and Toledo—tips of workers working on a commission basis averaged 21.1 percent of daily earnings.

Only fragmentary information is available regarding the earnings of bootblacks. The employment status of these workers falls into four categories: (1) Those who work for a small wage in return for which they do odd jobs around the place in addition to shoeshining; (2) those who rent the chair in barber shops and cleaning establishments but are under the regulations of the owner of the establishment with regard to hours and the wearing of uniforms; (3) those who work on the basis of a percentage of the intake; (4) those who are entirely independent.

Bootblacks who work for a small wage and do odd jobs around the place, in addition to shoeshining, generally receive about $5 or $6 a week in wages and earn an additional $5 or $6 in tips. With the exception of those who work independently, bootblacks are said to average in tips about 50 percent of total earnings.[13]

A few dollars a week in tips may be important or insignificant, depending upon the amount of total earnings of the worker. Natural-

[10] Information obtained from the president of the Station Porters' Union, Washington, D. C.

[11] As data on earnings of taxicab drivers are not available the Income Section of the Department of Commerce in its estimates of per capita income of taxicab employees has substituted the earnings of local truck drivers and considered such earnings as those of taxicab drivers.

[12] From Monthly Labor Review, March 1934 (p. 509) and December 1934 (p. 1480).

[13] Information obtained from the national secretary of the National Negro Congress in Washington, D. C.

ly, the larger the amount of total earnings, the less significant the earnings from tips.

Pay-roll data for the five industries—hotels, restaurants (with table service), barber shops, barber and beauty shops, and beauty parlors include officials and clerical workers whose salaries are usually higher than those of service workers. Therefore, the per capita annual pay roll gives only an approximation of the average annual earnings of these workers. In 1935 the per capita annual pay rolls were $648 in restaurants; $659 in hotels; $683 in barber shops; $788 in barber and beauty shops; $740 in beauty parlors; $815 in railroad dining rooms, and for Pullman porters the amount was $1,085.

Attitude Toward Tipping Practice

In this country the tipping practice has never been looked upon with great favor and when the giving of a tip became the expected thing and the nontipper began to be looked upon with scorn by the expectant tippee, the public began to resent the practice.

Some begrudged the extra charge, and yet lacked the strength of conviction to ignore the custom and not tip. Others objected to the high cost of tips. In Paterson, N. J., the restaurant keepers went to the length of drafting a bill which provided for fines and imprisonment for persons who tipped excessively and which aimed to regulate the whole tipping system.[14] As early as 1905 an anti-tipping society, known as The Anti-Tipping Society of America, existed in Georgia and was reputed to have had a membership of 100,000. Membership in this society called for a pledge not to give a tip to anyone for 12 months. Members were also supposed to try to enlist others to join them. These objectors were mostly traveling salespeople.[15] References to anti-tipping societies appear also in the literature of later periods and in other States, but whether these were different societies or an offspring of the same organization is difficult to ascertain.

From the very beginning organized labor opposed the tipping system. As soon as workers in service occupations began to enter trade-unions and bargain for wages collectively, the question of tips came to the fore. As early as 1896 the secretary of the barbers' union denounced the tipping system as humiliating and degrading.[16]

Then, as now, labor claimed that workers gained nothing by receiving tips, for what they earned in tips they lost in wages. It was argued that the tipping system was a cause of low wages, as the tendency has been to reduce wages proportionately with the amount of tips received, and that tips did not serve as a satisfactory substitute for

[14] Nation, Jan. 31, 1920, p. 133: Unregulated Tipping.

[15] Ladies' Home Journal, February 1905, p. 20: An American Nuisance.

[16] Gunton's Magazine, July 1896, pp. 13-19: Economic Effects of Tipping.

wages because the former were uncertain and irregular and depended upon the whim of the customer. It was therefore a precarious way of making a livelihood.

Labor people have also claimed that the tipping system has been an impediment to the organization of trade-unions in these occupations because the system of tips develops selfishness and jealousies among the workers. Moreover, tips have often served as an inducement to work long hours because of the eagerness for the extra earnings.[17]

Labor's collective protest against the tipping system was first manifested when the Chicago Pullman porters were organizing a union at the beginning of the present century. The protest was not, however, so much against the tipping system as against the low earnings from tips and the precariousness of such earnings. With the exception of the Pullman porters, trade-unions in the service occupations where tipping is prevalent made no open effort to inject tipping as an issue in collective bargaining, although in bargaining for higher wages it was invariably pointed out that higher wages would do away with the necessity of depending upon tips for a livelihood.

In general, during the second decade of the century the protests from the standpoint of the tip giver began to decline and emphasis was laid, rather, upon the inequities of such a system of wage payment and the hardships it worked upon the employees in these occupations. When trade-unions in the service industries became a factor in collective bargaining many felt that if the tipping system was ever to be abolished it must come through the efforts of the trade-unions.

Collective protests also came from consumers' organizations sympathetic to labor. At their Second International Conference in 1913 the Consumers' Leagues adopted a resolution condemning the tipping system and proposing means of abolishing it. Some of the planks in the resolution were: "The legal prohibition of tipping"; "Individual refusal to give a tip"; "The legal regulation of a tipping law"; "Organization of employees." [18]

The movement against tipping met with little active opposition or criticism. In the entire literature on the subject, covering a half century, only one article defending the tipping system was found. The writer of that article admitted that the worker would prefer wages to tips, but "for the 'tipper,' the system had advantages. He is, to begin with, a joint employer, with the landlord, of the waiter. The waiter must please him on pain of losing part of his salary * * *." [19]

Employers have to some extent welcomed the tipping practice. It is argued that they have realized that if the income from tips were

[17] Heyde, Dr. Ludwig: Die Trinkgeldablosung in Gastwirtsegewerbe, Jena, 1914, p. 8.

[18] Compte Rendu de la Deuxieme Conference Internationale des Ligues Sociales d'Acheteurs, Anvers, 1913, pp. 139, 140.

[19] The Canadian Magazine, March 1905, p. 417: Tipping—A Defence.

taken away, workers would press for higher wages, since wages, unsupplemented by tips, would not afford a livelihood. Employers have also contended that tipping insured better service on the part of workers, since the eagerness for the tip prompted them to make a greater effort to please the customers.

Occasionally individual employers have abolished the practice in their establishments, either in disapproval of the system or to attract customers who resent tipping. There are also employers who, though they have not taken any steps to do away with the practice in their own establishments, would welcome its abolition on general principles, but who claim that owing to competition, individual firms find it difficult to abolish the practice and pay the necessary increases in wages.

Ironically enough, the one occupation in which tipping constitutes the chief source of income to workers is said to have come into existence in an effort to abolish what seemed then the budding custom of tipping. It appears that station porters, commonly called "red caps," were hired by the New York Central Railroad Co. in the nineties to aid the passengers with their luggage. The company took "great pains to inform its patrons and the public that these porters 'are paid by the company' and need not and 'should not be tipped.' " It was pointed out that "If the public will cooperate with the company this reform will be a success, and may be expected soon to be adopted by other corporations throughout the country, and so, ultimately rid the American public of a European nuisance which everybody resents but few can individually afford to resist." [20]

Anti-Tipping Legislation

The crusade against the tipping system also manifested itself in the enactment of a number of anti-tipping laws. Washington was the first State to pass such a law; it provided that "Every employee of a public house or public-service corporation who shall solicit or receive any gratuity from any guest shall be guilty of a misdemeanor." (Acts of 1909, ch. 249, secs. 439, 440.) Three years later the State of Mississippi put into effect a much more comprehensive anti-tipping law (Laws of 1912, ch. 136), and was followed by Arkansas with a similar law the next year. Two years later, in 1915, three more States—Iowa, South Carolina, and Tennessee—enacted similar legislation, and in 1918 Georgia followed suit. The Georgia law (Acts of 1918, No. 404) was more restricted in application than the others; it applied only to "tips" received for the purpose, or with the intent, of influencing the action of employees in relation to their employer's business. Here the concept of a tip was something akin to a commer-

[20] Gunton's Magazine, July 1896, pp. 13-19: Economic Effects of Tipping.

cial bribe. The word "tip" appears in a similar connection in a California law enacted in 1917 dealing with the taking of fees by persons who do the hiring for their firms. California later, in 1929, enacted another law regarding tips. This was not an anti-tipping law but one dealing with the posting of notices of the employers' policy respecting tips. Vain attempts were made in several other States to pass anti-tipping acts.

The Washington law had the shortest existence, being repealed in 1913. The Iowa law was declared unconstitutional in 1919 by the State supreme court on the ground that it was discriminatory legislation, as the law prohibited workers from receiving tips, but left employers free to do so. (*Dunahoo* v. *Huber*, Supreme Court of Iowa (Mar. 17, 1919), 171 N. W. 123.) The South Carolina act was repealed in 1922, those of Tennessee and Arkansas in 1925, and that of Mississippi in 1926.

In view of the fact that the anti-tipping sentiment was still strong in the early and middle twenties, one may wonder why the anti-tipping laws were repealed. Undoubtedly an important factor was the invalidation of the Iowa anti-tipping law. At the same time a certain amount of pressure was brought to bear by employers in the service industries in which tipping is prevalent. The persistence of the tipping practice, and the consequent feeling on the part of many of the futility of trying to abolish it, were also contributing factors in wiping these laws off the statute books. In the early part of the century the pleas were to abolish tipping before it became widespread, while it was still in its infancy, whereas in the twenties tipping was referred to as an "institution." Even in the protests there seemed to be present a tone of doubt of the possibility of achievement.

Legal Status of Tips

Tips Under Workmen's Compensation [21]

The problem of the status of tips in relation to wages first manifested itself in connection with workmen's compensation legislation. Workmen's compensation laws are more concerned with the methods of computing wages than with wage definitions. Of the 50 State and 2 Federal laws in effect, 20 do not specify what constitutes wages.

Of the remaining 32 laws, 12 contain provisions with respect to tips or gratuities. Seven of these (Colorado, Kansas, New Jersey, New Mexico, Pennsylvania, Minnesota, Delaware) specifically exclude from the wage category tips or gratuities received from employers or others and the other 5 include tips (Florida, Missouri, the 2 United States laws,[22] and Nebraska to a limited extent).

[21] This section was prepared by Regina Beckhardt.

[22] These Federal laws are the Longshoremen and Harbor Workers' Compensation Act and the District of Columbia Compensation Act.

Since the terms of "allowance" and "advantages" in workmen's compensation laws have been interpreted by the courts to apply to tips received from patrons, laws that contain such terms in the definition of wages should be placed in separate categories. Nine laws [23] include in the definition of wages, allowances in lieu of wages if specified as part of the wage contract, or allowances of any character if part of the wage contract, or allowances in the way of profit-sharing premiums or otherwise. The laws of the 10 States [24] include in the definition of wages the reasonable value of similar advantages, or similar advantages received from the employer if the money value was fixed at the time of hiring, or the market value of other advantages which can be estimated in money.

The status of tips under workmen's compensation, however, has been established not so much by the text of the laws as by the courts' interpretations of the given provision.

Court decisions on tips.—Most court decisions involving tips deal with workmen's compensation. Although the number of such cases in this country is limited, the courts have definitely established the fact that where tips are contemplated in the wage contract, whether expressed or implied, they are to be considered part of the wage contract and are therefore wages for the purpose of awarding compensation, but where evidence shows that tips were not taken into consideration in the wage agreement they are not wages for the purpose of awarding compensation.

As early as 1917, in a case involving a taxicab driver who had been averaging 85 cents a day, or $5.10 a week, from tips in addition to a regular wage paid him by his employer, a decision was affirmed by the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court of New York that tips overtly received and within the knowledge of the employer are within the contemplation of the wage contract and are therefore part of the wage contract, even though there is no expressed understanding to that effect. (*Sloat* v. *Rochester Taxicab Co.*, 117 App. Div. 57, 163 N. Y., Supp. 904, affirmed without opinion in 221 N. Y. 491, 116 N. E. 1076 (1917).)

A similar decision had been handed down by the Industrial Accident Board of Massachusetts 4 years earlier. (*Hatchman's Case*, 2 Mass. Work. Comp. Cases 419 (1913).)

The Massachusetts law contains no definition of the term "wages" but merely specifies the method of computing "average weekly wages." The New York law defines "wages" as "the money rate at which the service rendered is recompensed under the contract of hiring in force at the time of the accident, including the reasonable value of board,

[23] Alabama, Indiana, Maryland, Montana, North Carolina, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Virginia.

[24] California, Idaho, North Dakota, New York, Oklahoma, Oregon, Philippine Islands, Texas, Vermont, Hawaii.

rent, housing, lodging, or similar advantages received from the employer * * *." The word "earnings" does not appear in either of these laws. However, in the New York case, the court held that in similar cases in England the terms "earnings" and "wages" had been held to have synonymous meanings, and although the New York law used the term "wages", the act as a whole made it clear that the legislative intent was that wages should be synonymous with earnings, and that the phrase "similar advantages received from the employer" applied to tips since the opportunity to receive tips came through the contract of employment.

Other decisions holding tips to be wages and based on similar reasoning are:

Bryant v. *Pullman Co.*, 188 App. Div. 311, 177 N. Y. Supp. 488 affirmed without opinion in 228 N. Y. 579, 127 N. E. 909, certiorari granted, 254 U. S. 624 (1920), and dismissed as per stipulation, 254 U. S. 666 (1920).

Hartford Accident & Indemnity Co. v. *Industrial Accident Commission*, 41 Calif. App. 543.

Kadison v. *Gottlieb*, 226 App. Div. 700, 233 N. Y. Supp. 485 (1929).

Lloyds Casualty Co. v. *Meredith*, No. 2382. Court of Civil Appeals of Texas. Beaumont, Oct. 26, 1933. Rehearing denied Nov. 1, 1933, 63 S. W. 1052.[25]

Gross Case, 166 Atl. 54, Supreme Judicial Court of Maine, May 4, 1933.

Powers' Case, 176 N. E. 621, 75 A. L. R. 1220.

In *Bryant* v. *Pullman Co.* the low earnings of the worker were taken into consideration in determining the status of tips. The court held that "* * * It is improbable that the company could employ a porter for $1 a day, if other compensation was not in contemplation. The company puts its patrons in the hands of underpaid porters, expecting that the patrons will not suffer the porter to remain underpaid, but will help the company pay for the services rendered by them * * *."

The Hartford case offers another illustration of court interpreting the term "other advantages" to apply to tips received from patrons. On this point the court said:

> We are satisfied that the phrase "other advantages received by the injured employee as part of his remuneration and which can be estimated in money" is broad enough to permit the inclusion of tips in the "average weekly earnings" of such employee, upon which the amount of his award is to be calculated. There is nothing in the act which can be construed as restricting the earnings of the employee either to those which the employer directly pays to him in the form of wages, or to those which are embraced within the employer's pay roll.

The decision in the *Powers' Case* is of even greater significance, because in this decision the court analyzed in detail the nature of tips in relation to cash wages. The injured employee was a waitress in a restaurant; she had been receiving $8 a week in cash wages from her

[25] This case is somewhat different in character as it was found that there had been an agreement between the workers and their employer in the restaurant business in the city of Beaumont, substantially the whole of the year preceding the date of the injury, that tips received by workers from customers should constitute part of their compensation.

employer and was averaging $12 a week in tips. The court first established the fact that in previous cases of the present type wages and earnings had been considered synonymous.

The court further enumerated a number of objections to the tipping system; the practice, the court said, was not in harmony with the spirit of American institutions, it tended to place the recipient in a servile position and undermined his independence of character, but, said the court:

> It cannot be overlooked or ignored, however, that in said employments the custom is almost universal in this Commonwealth. That condition must be recognized. It has in those employments a vital effect upon the terms and conditions of labor and the relations of employer and employee. It is a custom by which the employer * * * reaped a financial benefit in the lower payments made by him each week to secure the service of the employee.

A case where tips were not considered wages is that of *Begendorf* v. *Swift*, 193 App. Div. 404, 183 N. Y. Supp. 917 (3d Dept. 1920) where a truck driver delivering meat to his employer's customers received $25 a week in regular wages and averaged $5 a week in tips received from customers to whom the deliveries were made. The employer had no knowledge of these gratuities but admitted that it was not unusual for deliverymen to receive tips nor did he have any objection to the receiving of such tips. It appeared, however, that the driver often did little favors for the customers when delivering the meat, such as helping them hang it up. The tips were therefore construed to be a payment for such extra services which were not a part of the driver's functions.

In *Anderson* v. *Horling*, 214 App. Div. 826, 211 N. Y. Supp. 487 (1925) the court also held that tips had not been contemplated in making the wage contract.

In two other cases handed down in 1912 involving the property rights in tips, the courts held that a tip was a personal gift from the donor to the recipient. In *Polites* v. *Bordin*, 149 S. W. 828, a worker in a shoeshine parlor turned in his tips to his employer through lack of knowledge that they were intended for him. When informed that tips given him were not intended for his employer he sued to recover the tips that for 5 years he had deposited in his employer's cash register, and was upheld by the Court of Appeals of Kentucky.

The circumstances in the other case, *Zappas* v. *Roumeliote*, 137 N. W. 935, were similar except that the employee had worked under salary contract, but also, through lack of knowledge, had turned over the tips to his employer. The Supreme Court of Iowa declared that in the absence of agreement to the contrary tips were a personal gift to the tippee and belonged to him.

An unusual case involving tips was that of *Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters* v. *Pullman Co.* (I. C. C. Reports, No. 2007, 1928). In September 1927 the Brotherhood petitioned the Interstate Com-

merce Commission to compel the Pullman Co. "to cease and desist from directly or indirectly informing and instructing applicants for positions as porters that they may expect increment to their wages from passengers and from inducing or permitting porters in its service to receive gratuities from passengers, and from continuing to fix its wage rates for porters at an amount insufficient to enable them to remain in the service and from all acts, policies, or practices tending to produce discriminations among passengers in the service rendered them by its employees, and from inducing payment by passengers for services rendered in excess of the price printed on the tickets of passengers." The Brotherhood's chief complaint was, in effect, that the wages paid to Pullman porters were fixed on the basis of the amount of tips received and that such tips were therefore a charge which did not appear on the company's books.

The I. C. C. dismissed the case on the ground that tips were not turned in to the company and were therefore not the defendant's property, and that there was no law in effect which prohibited tipping of Pullman porters. The decision goes on to say that—

> Tipping in the Pullman service was practiced long before the Congress began to regulate interstate carriers and it is reasonable to assume that had the Congress intended the practice of either giving or receiving tips to be unlawful it would have so declared in express terms. Moreover, * * * the real objectives sought are increased wages for the porters and maids in the defendant's employ. We have no power to regulate wages.

A distinction should be drawn between the inclusion of tips as part of wages in workmen's compensation and in unemployment compensation or old-age insurance. Under the latter the employer would be paying contributions on the tips received by his workers if tips were considered wages, but in workmen's compensation there is no such direct relationship between insurance rates and workers' earnings. Moreover, under workmen's compensation it is not necessary for an employer to know or to report to an administrative agency the amount of tips received regularly by each of his workers.

Tips Under Minimum-Wage Laws [26]

Minimum-wage laws have steered clear of tips. None of these laws mention tips or gratuities as a factor in wage payment. In several of the States tips are explicitly excluded from the minimum-wage rates either by administrative regulations or by general practice. In two States—Wisconsin and Minnesota—tips are considered wages in special cases. In Wisconsin there is a ruling to the effect that where a systematic record is kept of tips received by workers, such tips may be included in the minimum wage, but no formal order has been issued that such a record must be kept by employers or

[26] Information for this section was obtained from the Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor.

workers. In Minnesota deductions from fixed minimum-wage rates are allowed in the case of tips paid to boys in shoeshine parlors.

In the States of California, Ohio, Oregon, and Washington, tips are not considered part of wages. In New Hampshire, deductions from the minimum wage are prohibited unless written approval is given by the commissioner. In New York no deductions whatever may be made, except that deductions for insurance premiums or membership dues in an agreed amount may be made if the worker gives his written consent. Tips are not mentioned in either of these two laws.

Tips Under the N. R. A.

During the N. R. A. period the controversy over the status of tips came again to the fore. This time the question at issue was whether earnings from tips should be included in the minimum rates under the codes.

The question of tips loomed large during the code hearings for the hotel, restaurant, and barber-shop industries. None of the codes finally adopted for these industries mentioned tips or gratuities as a factor in the payment of wages. However, the rates set for service workers, as compared with nonservice workers, seemed to indicate that possible earnings from tips were in the background in setting the rates.[27]

As originally proposed, all three of these codes contained provisions for the inclusion of tips as part of wages.

In the discussion for and against the deduction of the amount of tips from the minimum wage there seems to have been sharp division between employers on one side and the workers and the public on the other. Representatives of labor and representatives of the public—the latter included witnesses from the National Consumers' League, the United States Department of Labor, and civic organizations—fought bitterly against the inclusion of tips as a part of wages. Employers, on the other hand, with one exception (the Horn & Hardart Co.)[28] all advocated the inclusion of tips as part of wages. The chief argument advanced was that industry could not bear the burden of paying N. R. A. wages unless the value of tips was regarded as earnings.

It was stated by a number of speakers representing both sides that a large number of waiters and other service workers received no salary or only a nominal salary and depended entirely for their income on

[27] In the hotel industry the minimum rates per week to be paid to nonservice workers ranged from $10 to $15 depending upon the size of the city, but in the case of service workers the employer was merely to guarantee those rates. In the restaurant industry the weekly rates of nonservice workers ranged from $12 to $15 and the corresponding rates for service workers ranged from $9.50 to $10.50 per week. In the code for the barber-shop industry the rates for manicurists, bootblacks, and brush boys ranged from $6.50 to $8.50 per week depending upon the size of the city. The corresponding rates for workers in barber shops ranged from $13 to $17.

[28] This firm operates mostly automatic cafeterias in which tipping tends to be an exception rather than the rule.

tips. The workers made this claim to prove that as a result of the tipping system employers shifted the payment of wages to the public, and employers made the same assertion to prove that tips had always been considered a source of income equivalent to wages.

Tips Under Unemployment Compensation [29]

There is no uniformity in the status of tips under the State unemployment-compensation laws. Of the 51 State unemployment-compensation laws,[30] 34 include tips as part of wages. In addition to these 34 States, 3 laws (those of Idaho, Mississippi, and Pennsylvania) include tips as part of wages in a limited degree; i. e., only such tips as are "accounted for by the employee to the employer shall be considered wages."

Five State laws [31] specify that tips or other gratuities received by a worker in the course of his employment are not a part of his wages.

In eight States [32] no provisions are made with respect to tips or gratuities, nor are these terms mentioned in the administrative regulations.

In New Jersey the regulations provide that tips and other gratuities may be disregarded by employers for the purpose of contribution, irrespective of whether or not such tips were taken into consideration in determining the workers' remuneration.

Tips Under the Social Security Act

The Federal Social Security Act makes no mention of tips. Wages are defined as "all remuneration for employment, including the cash value of all remuneration paid in any medium other than cash."

The Bureau of Internal Revenue has interpreted this provision to mean that "tips paid directly to an employee by a customer of his employer, and not in any way accounted for by the employee to the employer, do not constitute 'wages' within the meaning of section 907 (b), title IX of the Social Security Act * * *" (S. S. T. 12).

It is not certain how the Bureau of Internal Revenue will rule in specific cases which may come up in the future. There are, for instance, situations where workers hand over the tips to their employer according to a prearranged agreement and receive them back as part of their wages, as is often the case with workers employed on a wage contract

[29] Data are as of Aug. 1, 1937.

[30] Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Minnesota, Montana, New Hampshire, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin, Wyoming.

[31] Alabama, Indiana, Iowa, Massachusetts, California. (In California the administrative regulations exclude tips, but provide that where minor and adult females do not receive a wage but receive tips or other gratuities from patrons of their employers in lieu of wages, contributions shall be made on the basis of the minimum wage payable to such workers under the State minimum-wage law.)

[32] Alaska, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska, Nevada, Oregon, Hawaii, Michigan.

or under a guaranteed wage agreement. In other cases all tips received by workers in a given establishment are turned over to the employer, who then determines the amount each worker is to receive. It would seem that the term "accounted for" would apply to such situations. Instances where it would seem that the term "accounted for" does not apply, are arrangements in which tips are pooled among the workers themselves, or in the more usual situation where each worker retains the amount of tips received. Still another case falling in the latter category is that in which a worker contracts to turn over the tips to his employer and receive a stated salary. In such a case the contribution would be paid on the salary and tips would not be taken into consideration.

Possible Effects Under Unemployment Compensation and Old-Age Insurance

If tips are included in the definition of wages under unemployment compensation and old-age insurance, what effect is this likely to have upon benefits and wage levels? From the standpoint of benefits the advantages to workers, in occupations where tipping prevails, of including tips in wages for the purpose of calculating unemployment compensation and old-age insurance, are obvious; since the amounts of unemployment compensation and old-age insurance payable to qualified workers are based on previous earnings in covered occupations, the higher the earnings the larger will be the amount of benefits. Under unemployment compensation, for example, a worker receiving $15 per week in wages and averaging $5 a week in tips would have his benefits computed on the basis of $15 per week if tips are not included in wages, and on the basis of $20 per week if tips are included; and if the law provides, say, for benefits of 50 percent of weekly wages, he would receive $7.50 a week in unemployment benefits in the first case and $10 per week in the second.

The possible effect that the inclusion of tips is likely to have upon wage levels is not so obvious. Persons conversant with labor problems claim that the inclusion of tips in wages under the social-security program is likely to result in a reduction in cash wages and to jeopardize the chances of establishing a minimum wage, as employers might tend to consider tips as part of the wage payment in the minimum rates set. It is further argued that even where wage levels are above any legal minimum the inclusion of tips would tend to lower wages because employers would regard earnings from tips as wages paid by them, owing to the fact that they would be paying contributions on earnings from tips. Furthermore, those who regard the tipping system with disfavor and have looked forward toward its abolition seem to feel that the inclusion of tips as part of wages is likely to impede efforts to abolish the practice.

Thus on the one hand there is the consideration of larger unemployment and old-age benefits, and on the other the possibility of lower wage levels.

The loss in wages, if there should be any, is bound to be greater than any possible gain in benefits, for the reason that the period of unemployment for which benefits are payable is limited in proportion to the previous length of employment. Moreover, where employment is stable, the possible gain in increased unemployment benefits is even more limited.

It is often asked, assuming that workers who average a few dollars a week in tips would prefer or would be better off not to have such tips included in wages, "how about those workers whose chief or sole source of income is derived from tips?" While the number of such workers is not very considerable, they nevertheless constitute a group needing the benefit of unemployment compensation as much as other workers. A waiter working in a night club is no more assured of steady employment or a prosperous old age than a waiter working in an ordinary restaurant. Some people hold that it is inadvisable to jeopardize the wage standards of a large number of workers for the benefit of this small group. Others are of the opinion that exclusion of tips from wages need not necessarily deprive such workers of the benefits of the Social Security Act, as it is possible to substitute a wage contract for the earnings from tips. In the State of California, for example, the administrative regulations exclude tips from the contributable wage, but provide that where minors and adult females do not receive a wage, but receive tips or other gratuities from patrons of their employers in lieu of wages, and where such workers receive tips but are guaranteed a minimum wage, contributions shall be made on the basis of the minimum wage under the State minimum-wage law.[33]

Some people feel that a similar device could be used where minimum-wage laws are not in effect and for workers not subject to such legislation. The administrative agency could determine a wage for such workers and establish that as a minimum upon which contributions and benefits could be based. Suppose a waiter receives no wages but works for what he earns in tips, and that the prevailing wage for the type of service rendered is $15 per week; in such a case contribution could be payable on $15. It might not even be necessary to resort to a prevailing market wage; it is conceivable that the employer and worker could agree that the contributable wage should be a certain amount, subject to the approval of the State administrative agency.

[33] An order, applying to all women and minors in the hotel and restaurant industries, issued by the California Industrial Welfare Commission, specifies that tips and gratuities are not to be construed as being part of the legal minimum wage. The above regulation, therefore, would seem to apply to industries not covered by the order of the welfare commission.

BOOTLEG MINING OF ANTHRACITE

DURING RECENT YEARS, the illegal mining of coal from properties of the large producing companies in the anthracite region of Pennsylvania has become a problem of country-wide interest. Particular significance attaches to this depression-born activity because it has been attended by the breakdown of ordinary legal processes in the region. Recognizing the plight of large numbers of unemployed miners, local judges and juries have frequently refused to convict for "bootlegging" of coal, or have imposed nominal sentences. As a result, it has been recognized for several years that bootleg mining has grown to substantial proportions. The precise extent of the industry, however, has been a question of considerable speculation and wide difference of opinion.

To throw light on this question, the Anthracite Coal Industry Commission, appointed by Governor Earle of Pennsylvania, made a comprehensive survey of bootleg mining. Its study,[1] recently completed, indicates that although the bootlegging of anthracite has developed into an industry of significance, it is considerably less extensive than would be indicated by estimates which have been published in newspapers by inadequately informed observers.

The report of the commission is based primarily on the results of a survey of bootleg holes and bootleg breakers, made in May and June 1937. The commission sent its own staff of experienced supervisors into the field. These were men trained in collecting, compiling, and interpreting statistics. The supervisors in turn selected as field agents over 20 men of good general education and skilled in personal relations, who had long been residents of the bootleg regions and had extensive personal acquaintance among the men engaged in bootlegging. The field agents were able to go directly to the bootleg holes and breakers with the questionnaires prepared by the commission, and to secure accurate replies. (No investigator coming from outside the region could have done this successfully, as strangers are viewed with suspicion.) Follow-up groups were sent later to check the accuracy and completeness of the original answers to the questionnaires. Finally, a statistical staff in the commission's office cross-checked the original answers for internal consistency, also checking them where possible against other sources of information. The totals and averages used in the report were then compiled.

[1] Pennsylvania. Anthracite Coal Industry Commission. Bootlegging or Illegal Mining of Anthracite Coal in Pennsylvania: A Census and Survey of the Facts. Harrisburg, 1937. Prepared under the supervision of James W. Angell, a member of the commission.

The survey directly covered 1,129 bootleg holes and 157 bootleg breakers, viewed as business establishments. In addition, 2,029 bootleg miners and 469 workers in breakers were interviewed personally. Because of lack of funds, it was not possible to get a complete coverage of all bootleg operations; but from direct observation, information obtained locally, and the results of an airplane survey, the commission's staff was able to gage accurately the total number of bootleg holes and breakers in southern Pennsylvania fields. The commission estimates that its detailed survey covered 57 percent of all bootleg holes and 46 percent of all bootleg breakers. The results obtained from such large samples are believed to represent adequately and fairly the situation in the bootleg industry as a whole.

Production and Employment in Bootleg Mining

In 1936–37, the bootleg-mining industry produced and sold anthracite at the rate of 2,400,000 tons a year. This was nearly 5 percent of the total output of all legal anthracite mines in Pennsylvania. In the year of peak activity, 1935, the bootleg output probably did not exceed 2,900,000 tons. In 1936–37, final consumers paid roughly $16,000,000 a year for illegal coal.

During 1936–37 an average of 7,000 men were employed in bootleg-mining operations proper, 2,000 in picking over old culm and refuse banks, 1,300 in the bootleg breakers, and about 2,700 in trucking (many of whom, however, also performed other kinds of trucking). The total number engaged in bootlegging was hence about 13,000.

Of the 8,300 men working in bootleg holes and breakers, over 5,000, or 60 percent, had formerly worked around legal mines. Most of the remainder were young men and boys who came from miners' families; and 99.5 percent of the total had lived in the anthracite regions for at least 10 years. Most of them were also permanent residents of the southern Pennsylvania fields alone; few had come in from other anthracite fields. Including the families of the total of 13,000 men engaged in bootlegging, and after allowing for those having other sources of income, some 45,000 persons (if the survey of May and June 1937 can be considered as representative of the present status) are now wholly dependent on the bootleg industry.

Characteristics of the Industry

Anthracite bootlegging has been confined almost entirely to the southern fields — in Schuylkill and southeastern Northumberland Counties. This concentration is explained partly by the fact that in the southern fields the coal outcrops are more numerous and more easily worked from the surface than in the middle and northern fields; partly by the entire lack of any means of support other than mining

in many of the communities in the southern fields; and partly by the fact that the effects of technological improvements, concentration of legal mining and breaking operations, and complete abandonment of high-cost legal mines have all been especially marked in the southern fields. There are a number of communities in those fields in which bootleg mining and breaking are the only important productive activities now going on, and in which this illegal mining is literally the sole important means of support. In most of these communities, this situation has prevailed for at least 4 or 5 years past. Some 65 percent of all bootleg miners are working on the lands of one company alone, the Philadelphia & Reading Coal & Iron Co.

The typical bootleg-mining operation is carried on by a group of 3 to 5 men (the average number is 3.6) working in partnership; very few holes employ men on wages. The average output in the bootleg holes is 1.3 tons per man per day (less than half that of legal mines), and the average rate of profit per man is $19.70 per week. Both output and profits, however, vary widely. Some workers, for short periods of time, have earned as high as $79 per week.

At present 1,965 bootleg mines or holes are in active operation. But the average length of active life of any one hole is only about 7.5 months. The bootleg miner is therefore always having to move on, as he exhausts the accessible coal in one hole and then gambles on the result of starting in another location. In some regions whole mountain sides are dotted with abandoned holes.

Some of the bootleg miners have built their own crude breakers and make a practice of preparing their coal for the market on the spot, but the greater number send their run-of-mine coal to larger and more centrally located bootleg breakers, which are operated as separate business enterprises. It is estimated that there are now 342 such bootleg breakers, or one for every 5.7 bootleg holes. The average bootleg breaker handles 119 tons of run-of-mine coal per week, employs approximately 4 men, and makes a profit of $77 a week for its owners. Most of the men working in the bootleg breakers, however, receive wages and not profits. The wages of the breaker employees average $14 a week. Bootleg breaking, like bootleg mining, is hence a relatively small-scale operation, but it pays its owners much better than does bootleg mining.

To some extent the bootleg breakers sell their coal to final consumers from their own trucks. But the larger part of the bootleg output, especially that which is shipped to more distant points, is sold to independent truckers and retailers who come in from outside the anthracite fields, buy coal at the bootleg breakers, and sell it as far away as Baltimore, New York, and Connecticut. None of the bootleg coal moves by rail.

Profits and Wages

Who makes money from bootlegging? This question the commission's study does not conclusively answer. Certainly not the bootleg miner himself, nor the wage earner in the bootleg breakers, nor the small trucker. Each of these classes earns scarcely more than subsistence wages. The breaker operator receives a substantial sum on the average, but his profits will never make him a millionaire. If any really large profits are extracted from bootlegging, they must go to the truckers and distributors from outside the anthracite region, who sell in more distant markets; but the limited data available on sales prices, trucking, and handling cost do not suggest that anyone is really getting rich from bootlegging, unless it be an occasional individual who has temporarily worked himself into a semi-racketeering position.

Taken by and large, bootlegging pays substandard earnings to the great majority of those it employs, and pays those earnings in return for work done under substandard conditions. The bootlegger's advantages—that his coal costs him nothing, that he pays no taxes, insurance, or the like, and that distribution by truck is cheaper than by rail (up to perhaps 100 miles)—are offset by the comparative inefficiency of the mining methods used and by the fact that the coal must be sold below the market price for legal coal if it is to be sold at all.

Future Prospects

Anthracite bootlegging has now been engaged in, on a large scale, for 5 or 6 years. As to how long it will continue, opinions differ. At the time the commission's report was prepared, in the late summer of 1937, bootlegging was at low ebb. On the other hand, a cold winter with its consequent increase in the demand for coal, or an augmentation of the present economic pressure on unemployed miners, might easily produce a very substantial expansion of this activity.

From a longer-run point of view, however, the gradual exhaustion of the coal deposits that are easily accessible from the surface, the increasing severity both in Pennsylvania and in other States of legal restrictions on trucking and sale of bootleg coal, and the improving prospects for a genuine revival of the whole legitimate anthracite industry, seem to forecast a gradual natural decline in bootlegging in future years. Moreover, the employment in other occupations of the four thousand and odd workers in bootleg holes who have had previous legal-mine experience would, at any time, bring bootlegging to an end overnight by removing most of the men who have the technical skill necessary to carry it on.

CONSUMERS' COOPERATIVES IN NORTHERN WISCONSIN [1]

By SAMUEL MERMIN, *Chief Legal Unit, U. S. Consumers' Project*

THE SUPERIOR, WIS., district [2] is noteworthy for the variety and scope of influence of the cooperative activities being carried on within it. Not only does this region contain several successful local store associations and two cooperative boarding houses, but it also contains the headquarters of two cooperative wholesales, a regional oil association, two cooperative publishing associations, three educational associations, and an organization which operates a cooperative park. Because of the presence of these commercial and educational federations, the district exercises an influence far beyond that indicated by the mere number of associations shown. The 9 federated associations include as members 567 local cooperative associations, in addition to 457 individuals; this membership is drawn from throughout the area of Minnesota, northern Wisconsin, northern Michigan, and to a lesser degree from the Dakotas. Thus the cooperative activities of the Superior area affect the cooperators of a wide section.

Most of the local associations in this territory date from the World War or the next few years thereafter. One of the wholesales was formed in 1917, but the other was not started until 1931. Of the other federated groups, one publishing association was formed in 1903, the other in 1934.

An aggregate business of nearly $4,000,000 was done by these associations in 1936, of which more than $3,000,000 was in the field of wholesale trade. Net earnings on this turn-over amounted to more than $90,000, and over $68,000 was returned to members on their patronage.

The Local Associations

All of the local associations in this area operate on the traditional Rochdale principle of one member, one vote, and all but one (a boarding house in Superior) prohibit voting by proxy. The practice of permitting members to vote by mail, although provided for in the bylaws of several of the associations, is rarely utilized.

Membership is unrestricted, except for the power of directors to disapprove of proposed new members—a power seldom exercised. In

[1] One of a series of spot studies made for the Bureau of Labor Statistics in May and June 1937, in connection with the Bureau's general survey of cooperative associations. The report for Cleveland was given in the Monthly Labor Review, September 1937 (p. 541), and that for Chicago in the October issue (p. 816).

[2] Includes not only the city of Superior but also the towns of Brule, Iron River, Maple, and Wentworth, Wis.

the towns outside the city of Superior the membership is largely farmers; in Superior itself it is drawn from various wage-earning groups.

Of the five store associations, one was formed in 1913, one in 1914, one in 1916, one in 1919, and one in 1920. The two boarding houses were started in 1917 and 1919, respectively, and the hall association in 1905.

Store Societies

The five store associations operate eight retail stores (mainly of the general merchandise type), five gasoline filling stations, and two automobile repair garages. The association with the largest number of interests has three stores, a gasoline filling station, and a garage for automobile repairs. Another has a store, an assembly hall, a garage, a gas station, and a blacksmith shop that is inactive because it has become unprofitable; the third has a main and a branch store and a gasoline station; the fourth has a store, a warehouse, and a gasoline station; and the fifth a small store and a gasoline station. All but one of the associations own one or more trucks which are used in connection with their ordinary retail operations and also to haul milk for members and other special uses. For example one cooperative markets strawberries and forest products for members and nonmembers in the neighborhood, operating on a commission basis to cover expenses. Others are engaged in hauling for the Central Cooperative Wholesale (C. C. W.) in spare time.

In one or two instances the cooperative store has no local competitor. In Iron River there are three private grocery stores, a clothing store, and a hardware store, but the cooperative, handling all of these products, does more business than all of its private competitors combined.

Sales and finances.—The aggregate sales for 1936 were $500,715. Sales of groceries led in importance in the totals for all five cooperatives. Meats were second in two cases, and feed, seed, and fertilizer in two cases. Clothing, shoes, and dry goods, either separately or together, came third in the sales of three stores. Other items handled by some or all of the stores include dairy products, gas and oil, fuel, bakery products, automobile supplies, furniture, hardware, and farm equipment and machinery.

On the whole, sales are made at market prices, or slightly less. Credit is extended, usually, to both members and nonmembers, though in some cases with great caution, in view of unfortunate credit experiences in the history of some of the stores. Patronage returns are paid to both members and nonmembers, being credited, in the latter case, toward the purchase of shares.

A large proportion of the goods handled by these stores is bought from cooperative wholesale sources. Two societies report 90 percent

of their goods originating from cooperatives, one 85 percent, one 80 percent, and one 75 percent. In contrast with the relatively small ratio of wholesale purchases from noncooperatives, the figures representing purchases from the retail stores show that nonmembers are buying in the cooperatives quite extensively. In one store, nonmember trade represented half of the total sales, followed by 40, 20, 15, and 10 percent in the others. The retailing unit selling only 10 percent to nonmembers explained the low figure by stating that practically all families in the town are members.

These stores have all experienced financial strain at some period in their business life. Bad investments have been one of the major causes of difficulties. For example, two cooperatives lost money in a creamery, and one of these also lost its investment in a feed mill, besides suffering as a result of a fire in its store. Another had losses resulting from a bank failure and another from peculations of a dishonest manager.

Notwithstanding losses resulting from the special causes listed and the effects of the general depression, four out of five of these stores made dividend payments to patrons based on purchases in 1935 and 1936 and three reported such payments for 1934 as well.

In 1936 the rates of the patronage return were 3, 4, 4.19, and 8 percent, respectively, for the four cooperatives that paid dividends. The store paying 8 percent had returned 15 percent to members in 1935 and 5 percent in 1934. In another store the rate rose from 1.66 percent in 1934 to 2.5 in 1935, and to 4.19 percent in 1936.

The payment of a return on shares, as distinguished from the patronage return, is becoming increasingly insignificant. Although a maximum of 5 or 6 percent has been set by most of the societies, the rate paid is generally lower, and indeed an increasing number have ceased to allocate any earnings at all to such payment. The patronage return, it is felt, is more important than the return on shares. The latter return was paid by two of the five cooperatives in 1936. In both cases the rate was 3 percent. Of the remaining stores one provides for a 5-percent rate and two for a 6-percent rate. No store in this group has made a return on share capital in recent years. One of the stores paying 3 percent in 1936 paid 6 percent interest prior to 1932.

The following table shows the development of the five store associations since 1930. Almost all the cooperatives of the area have made financial progress. Though somewhat retarded by depression and by the split with the Communists in 1931, the growth has been steady.

Summary Statistics of 5 Store Associations in Northern Wisconsin

Year	Sales	Assets	Share capital	Net income	Number of members
1930	$319,632	[1] $90,036	$37,314	$12,770	[2] 1,262
1931	290,522	[3]	[3]	11,261	[3]
1932	250,011	[3]	[3]	5,338	1,349
1933	266,446	122,876	45,179	[4] 6,286	[5] 711
1934	348,883	141,298	48,311	11,280	[3]
1935	405,305	143,673	51,786	18,782	1,629
1936	500,715	162,845	52,850	21,742	1,810

[1] 4 associations.
[2] Not including 5 member organizations.
[3] No data.
[4] 4 associations had gains aggregating $6,817 and 1 had a loss of $531.
[5] 3 associations.

Employment conditions.—In all, 52 full-time employees were engaged in operating these five businesses. The largest cooperative had 21 on its pay roll, 3 had 8 each (1 also had 2 part-time workers and 2 had 1 each), and 1 had 7. The total amount paid in wages by the cooperatives in 1936 was $41,108. Weekly salaries of store managers ranged from approximately $29 to $40 (plus, in the latter case, the use of the store automobile). Another cooperative furnished its manager with free light and water for his living quarters in addition to a $30 weekly salary. Branch and assistant managers were paid $20 to $27, meat cutters $18 to $30, clerks $7 to $21.50, bookkeepers $16.33 to $27.50 (plus, in the latter case, light and water), and truck drivers $17.50 to $24.30. The prevailing workday was 9 hours and the workweek 54 hours. In only one instance was this maximum exceeded, the manager of one cooperative working a 10-hour day and 60-hour week. The clerks in one store had an 8-hour day and 50-hour week and in another the maximum was 8 hours per day and 48 hours per week. In one store where two truck drivers were employed the higher paid of the two worked a 9-hour day and 54-hour week and the other a 7-hour day and 42-hour week.

Four of the 5 store associations granted employees 1 week's annual vacation with pay. There was less uniformity in the methods of treating overtime; three stores did not make extra payments for extra hours, one paid straight time, and the other time and one-half the regular hourly rate.

Other Local Associations

The other three local associations include two boarding houses for single men, which were started when the port industries were prosperous but are now declining in activity and membership, and a local educational association operating a hall. The boarding houses have a combined membership of 297 and the educational organization one of about 80.

Cooperative Federations

The central or federated organizations in the district include two regional wholesales, an oil association owned jointly by five store associations, a cooperative park association, three regional educational organizations, and two publishing associations.

The federations generally accept into membership only cooperative organizations, and are owned and controlled by these member societies. In the Superior area the cooperative park association and one publishing group are an exception to this rule, as they also admit individuals.

Voting.—In the federations the general "one member, one vote" policy is modified in various ways. In the Tyomies Society voting is on the basis of shares held, and in the Northern Wisconsin Cooperative Federation, each organization represented has an equal number of votes. In three cases, voting is based on the size of the membership in the constituent societies. Thus both the Northern States Women's Cooperative Guild and the Cooperative Youth League of the North Central States have a rule of 1 voting delegate for every 10 members in the local association; and the Workers and Farmers Cooperative Unity Alliance gives 1 vote for each 25 members of the member society.

A combination of voting methods is illustrated by that adopted by the Central Cooperative Wholesale. Every member society has at least 1 vote, but no society may have more than 40 votes. Within these limits, a society is entitled to 1 vote for each share of C. C. W. stock it owns to every 50 of its own individual members (or major fraction thereof), provided the society's total holdings in the C. C. W. come to at least 1 share for every 50 members. In the other central associations, the voting methods are similar in principle to that of the wholesale. Thus, Cooperative Services (a regional oil association) gives 1 vote per 10 members of the member society, provided the latter owns at least 1 share for every 20 of its own members. Member societies of the cooperative park (there are also some individual members of the park, who have 1 vote each) have 1 vote for every 5 of their individual members for whom a share in the park is owned. In Cooperative Publishing Association each member society has at least 1 vote; and may have a number of votes equal to the number of shares it owns, provided it owns at least 1 share for every 100 of its individual members, and provided it may never have more than one vote for each 100 of such members.

Wholesales

Of the wholesales, one dates from pre-war days and the other from 1931, the year after the schism over communism took place in the

cooperative movement. Together these organizations have in membership 143 local associations, but the older organization accounts for about three-fourths of this number. Some 90 additional, unaffiliated associations utilize the wholesales' facilities but hold no stock. The combined wholesale business in 1936 amounted to $3,107,116 of which 90 percent was business done by the older association.

The smaller association, the Workers and Farmers Cooperative Unity Alliance, has a small office and warehouse where it handles groceries, feed, seed, and fertilizer, household goods, dry goods, building materials, gas and oil, hardware, and miscellaneous farm supplies. The Central Cooperative Wholesale, starting on a jobbing basis, gradually expanded until it now occupies three buildings—a large headquarters building, a smaller storage warehouse, and a bakery building. It handles groceries, feeds and flour, dry goods, bakery goods, household supplies, gas and oil, automobile tires and accessories, hardware, paints, roofing, candies, and condiments. Items recently added include washing machines, radios, vacuum cleaners, refrigerators, stoves, and ranges. Its coffee-roasting department has a capacity of 16,000 pounds a day. At Virginia, Minn., it operates a branch feed mill and warehouse.

Although both wholesales do educational work, that of the Central Cooperative Wholesale is on by far the larger scale. It issues some 24,000 advertising posters each month, in addition to window signs, road maps, attachments for auto-license plates, lay-outs and cuts for advertising in local papers, and group advertising material in the Cooperative Builder and the Finnish Cooperative Weekly. Its educational department keeps a paternal eye upon the welfare of the member societies, conducts a weekly radio program, provides speakers for picnics and club meetings, makes occasional lecture tours, and sometimes obtains outside speakers. Since the passage of the Wisconsin law providing for teaching of cooperation in the public schools the department has been called upon for educational material for this purpose, and for speakers in the schools and higher institutions of learning. Some 500 persons have received training in the C. C. W. school for managers and cooperative employees which the department (sometimes in conjunction with the Northern States Cooperative League) has conducted for many years.

The C. C. W.'s auditing department has a staff of 7 trained auditors, who in 1936 audited the books of 103 cooperative organizations, on a fee basis.

The wholesale's labor force consists of 81 employees, whose weekly rates range from $14 to $60. There is collective bargaining with the bakers, drivers, and warehousemen, all of whom are members of A. F. of L. unions. All employees have an 8-hour day and 44-hour week except the bakers who work a 40-hour week. Overtime is paid

for at the rate of time and a half. One week's paid vacation per year is granted.

The Unity Alliance has four employees, who work an 8-hour day and whose weekly rates of pay range from $20 to $35.

Regional Oil Association

Cooperative Services, at Maple, is primarily a regional oil-distributing association serving the five stores of the district, which constitute its total membership—the stores at Superior, Wentworth, Maple, Brule, and Iron River. With capital of $2,100 and an authorized capital stock of $25,000, it was organized in 1928 to deal in oil and other products which were not feasible for handling by the individual member stores. Four or five nonmember societies also purchase from it, to the extent of about 15 percent of the company's total business. Until 1935 it was called the Cooperative Oil Association.

Commodities handled at present, in the order of their importance, are gasoline and motor oil, farm machinery, building material, explosives, and miscellaneous farm supplies. There are plans to add, in the future, such items as furniture, trucks, washing machines, etc. Operating facilities consist of three tank trucks, one gasoline bulk station, one gasoline and oil station, and one warehouse. About 65 percent of the purchases are from cooperative sources; and about 50 percent are from Central Cooperative Wholesale. The oil and gasoline is bought either from the C. C. W. or the Midland Cooperative Wholesale.

The association sells to the member stores but also finds it more feasible to make certain sales (e. g., farm machinery, and oil and gasoline from its tank wagons) directly to the individual members of the stores. These individuals make their payments directly to Cooperative Services, and receive patronage refunds directly from it. (The price charged is the same as if the purchase had been made from the local store.) However, part of the patronage refunds are paid by Cooperative Services to the store of which the individual in question is a member, or prospective member; and some direct sales are included in the store's total sales. This refund to the store is in addition to that which the store receives on its own purchases from Cooperative Services. In case of a dispute between member stores as to which store a nonmember who is a patron of Cooperative Services should be considered a prospective member of, the directors of Cooperative Services decide. If a member of the member store is indebted to Cooperative Services or to the store, his patronage refund from Cooperative Services is applied to his account.

In 1936 paid-in share capital amounted to $12,500, sales to $135,821, and net earnings to $8,187, of which $6,828 was returned in patronage refunds.

Of the seven full-time employees, four have an 8-hour day and 48-hour week; one an 8-hour day and 44-hour week ($15 weekly); and two a 9-hour day and 54-hour week. Weekly rates range from $15 to $32.20. Overtime is paid for on a straight-time basis. Vacations of 1 week with pay are granted annually.

Educational Federations

The educational federations in the Superior district include—

(1) The Northern Wisconsin Cooperative Federation, an unincorporated association organized in 1924 as a coordinating medium for the local C. C. W. associations. Its activities include, in addition to its general educational work, house-to-house promotional campaigns, an annual "Co-op Festival" at the cooperative park, distribution of cooperative literature, showing of cooperative films, etc. At its meeting are made the nominations from that district for directors of the Central Cooperative Wholesale.

(2) The Northern States Women's Cooperative Guild, an unincorporated educational association organized in 1929, for the purpose of arousing the interest of women in the consumers' cooperative movement. At the end of 1936 it had 62 local units whose membership varied from 12 to 60 individuals. The guild cooperates with the educational departments of the other federations. One of its main functions is the promotion and financing of summer institutes and camps for young people, but a large part of its program is devoted to cultural activities—drama, music, and social problems.

(3) The Cooperative Youth League of North Central States, organized in 1930 to fulfill the same functions in behalf of youth as the Women's Guild fulfills for women. It was sponsored and has been fostered by the C. C. W.'s educational department. It has local groups throughout Minnesota, upper Michigan, and upper Wisconsin. Its membership has declined somewhat from the peak of 2,000 (50 locals) reached in 1932, and now consists of 33 locals with 780 individual members. It publishes a monthly educational bulletin, conducts a "youth page" in the Cooperative Builder, and joins with other cooperatives in giving an annual cooperative youth course at which the aims and program of the league are set forth.

Cooperative Publishing Associations

Of the two publishing associations, Tyomies (Finnish for "workmen") was organized in 1903. Until the Communist split Tyomies was the publishing association for the major part of the cooperative movement in the North Central States. It still has some 250 member associations—mainly educational, cultural, and dramatic groups. It publishes a daily newspaper with Communist leanings, does some job

printing, and sells books, periodicals, and pamphlets at retail. Until a few years ago it also printed the Cooperative Builder and Finnish Cooperative Weekly (now published by Cooperative Publishing Association).

In 1934 the Cooperative Publishing Association was organized, taking over some of the functions of the C. C. W.'s educational department. It has in membership 41 consumers' cooperatives, 4 producers' cooperatives, and 1 mutual savings bank, besides 57 individuals. Though the publication of the C. C. W.'s two newspapers is the main job of this organization, it also takes orders for job printing, conducts an agency for the sale of typewriters, sells at retail cooperative and other books and pamphlets, and has a steamship-ticket service. The association has no printing plant of its own, but has its work done in union printing shops.

Tyomies has 23 employees, whose salaries range from $18 to $35 per week. The manager and editors work an 8-hour day and 45-hour week, the printers an 8-hour day and 40-hour week, and the office girls and retail clerks a 7½-hour day and 42½-hour week. Overtime is paid for at the rate of time and a half. All of the eight employees of the Cooperative Publishing Association work an 8-hour day and 44-hour week, at salaries ranging from $16 to $40 a week. Overtime is compensated for by permitting time off during slack periods. Both organizations grant one week's paid vacation each year.

Cooperative Park Association

Most of the 400 individual members and 28 member associations of the Northern Wisconsin Cooperative Park Association, at Brule, were acquired at the very outset of the park's existence in 1931. The park premises consist of a dance hall, meeting room, band pavilion, newly built dormitories, Finnish steam baths, gasoline and oil station, residence building of the supervisor, and wooded land. The amount invested is about $20,000.

The place is scarcely used at all in winter; in warmer months, the famous Brule river attracts fishermen, who may stay at the dormitories, for 50 cents a night. Normally, the dormitories are used in connection with the summer youth and children's courses. A cooperators' picnic festival is held at the park annually. In the warmer weather especially on Sundays, farmers of the region—whether members or not—stop there for ice cream and soft drinks and perhaps gas and oil. Most of the patronage is from nonmembers.

The manager is the only employee, receiving $700 a year plus rent, heat, and light. In the busy season he works about an 8-hour day and 56-hour week, but much less time during the colder months.

Problems of the Cooperatives

Labor policies.—The labor policies of the cooperatives are molded by conflicting forces. On the one hand there is an incessant pressure to make a greater financial success by paring down on all forms of costs—a pressure which is exemplified partly in many employees' feelings of moral obligation to make sacrifices in the matter of wages and hours. The point of view is expressed in a recent artical by the C. C. W.'s general manager:

> He [the employee] is not working for capitalists eager to make profit out of his labor and the customers who support the business. In truth, he is helping to make industrial democracy possible on a bigger scale, and the more efficient he is as a cooperative employee the more rapidly will the cooperative movement grow, and the more quickly will other men and women be able to find employment in cooperative service. * * * The members and customers in our cooperative enterprises usually demand a great deal more from the help than is done by employers in private business. (Very seldom, if ever, is cooperative help, for example, paid for overtime, not mentioning the hours spent in attending meetings and conferences.)[1]

On the other hand, the 1937 annual meeting of the C. C. W. adopted a resolution that it "reaffirms our organization's previous statements of policy in which it is recognized that consumers' cooperation and labor unionism represent fundamental economic movements in the interest of the underprivileged classes, that both movements in their ultimate aims properly seek the elimination of profit and exploitation, and that the programs of cooperation and labor are best fulfilled when they are carried forward with mutual understanding. * * * The Central Cooperative Wholesale continues to recognize the right of its employees to organize as they themselves see fit and to bargain collectively through representatives of their own choosing, fully assured that the exercise of this right entails no discrimination on the part of organized labor against the Central Cooperative Wholesale or the cooperative movement as a whole."

In the C. C. W., the truck drivers, warehousemen, and bakery workers are unionized; in the member stores, only the truck drivers (and the retail clerks in one store in June 1937). The only other unionized group are the printers, in Tyomies Society, who are in an A. F. of L. union.

The Cooperative Workers' Union, still in existence, embraces all types of cooperative employees including retail clerks, but the organization seems to be declining in this section, largely because of the fear that its activity might be construed as running counter to the policy of recent statutes frowning upon company unions. On June 10, 1937, the Cooperative Builder reported that the Retail Clerks' Union had unionized several retail stores in Superior, including the

[1] Journal of the Society for Advancement of Management, July 1937, p. 123: "The Manager and the Employee in Consumer Cooperative Organizations," by H. V. Nurmi.

People's Cooperative Society. The wages set in the latter's contract were more favorable than the rates prevailing in other member stores, which range from $7 to $19 for female clerks and $11.66 to $21.50 for male clerks, the most common workweek being 54 hours.

Managers' salaries in the retail stores range from about $30 to $40 weekly. As the wholesale's manager observed, in the article already quoted, "The cooperators are not in favor of paying exorbitant salaries to managers and other executives; instead they are trying to increase the wages of lower-paid employees."

Financing.—Perhaps the outstanding problem faced by these associations is the difficulty of obtaining sufficient capital not only to carry on the business efficiently but to allow expansion into new lines. This problem has been the subject of consideration at many annual meetings.

A 1937 resolution of the board of directors of the C. C. W. made the following observation:

> Constant expansion of our organization requires more working capital, which is not an easy problem to solve, since to begin with—almost without exception—all of our cooperative associations have been started with insufficient capital. It has been hoped that the net earnings could be retained for additional working capital, and it has been done to some extent, but during the last few years our cooperators seem to have adopted the idea that all earnings should be returned in the form of patronage rebates, in order to avoid paying needless income taxes, and that the larger rebates would serve as an inducement for those cooperators who are not as yet familiar with the ideals of cooperation * * *. If we try to expand our organization with the aid of loan capital we are not building on a sound basis.

Therefore, a broad, self-help financing program was proposed by the board as a general solution to the working-capital problem:

(*a*) Patronage refunds—whether those declared by a central wholesale or by a retail cooperative—should be deferred, in their payment, for a year or 2 or 3; and no refunds to be paid in cash or goods until there has been acquired a specified amount of share capital.

(*b*) For financing the central organization, the member associations should accept certificates of indebtedness instead of cash, bearing a certain rate of interest, and with a due date, but subject to redemption earlier if financial conditions permit. Furthermore, the financially strong member associations should in addition, make loans to the central organization, and also pay for their purchases in advance, if possible.

(*c*) There should be continuous allocations of earnings to the reserve fund. This may mean higher income taxes for a time, until the campaign for income-tax exemption results in suitable amendments to the present Revenue Act.

(*d*) Local credit unions should be encouraged, and these should concentrate their funds in some central fund or bank, which in turn would accommodate the cooperatives with loans, so far as permissible under the banking laws of the various States.

(*e*) Genuine cooperative banks should be established, so that cooperatives will not be "at the mercy of private capital."

Income tax.—Almost as worrisome as the working-capital problem has been that of Federal income-tax exemption. Though the Wisconsin income-tax statute exempts cooperatives, the Federal law exempts only farm cooperatives (providing their purchases for those who are neither members nor producers do not exceed 15 percent of total purchases, and purchases for nonmembers do not exceed those for members, and products marketed for nonmembers do not exceed those for members).

The last report of the C. C. W.'s auditing department observed that "nearly all the cooperatives in our territory which can hope to get exemption have already been granted that right. Our numerous city stores cannot get exemption under the present income-tax laws, and there is always the likelihood that the exempt status may be lost to farmers' stores for opening branches in the cities, or for not strictly adhering to the letter of the law."

It is at least partly because of the income-tax problem that the reserve fund of the C. C. W. (and of a few member societies) is regulated by the following recent bylaw: "Any part of the net income or other amounts carried to the reserve fund or other reserves from operations of any year shall be allocated on the books * * * on a patronage basis for that year, or in lieu thereof, the books and records * * * shall afford a means for doing so at any time, so that in the event of dissolution, or earlier if deemed advisable, such reserves may be returned to the patrons who have contributed the same." In this manner, the auditing department hopes, it will be made clear that the reserve fund is different from the taxable reserves and surpluses of ordinary business corporations.

Quality of goods.—In the matter of quality of goods, the stores rely upon the C. C. W. At the latter's 1936 annual meeting, there was considerable discussion of certain variations in the quality of flour and canned goods, and the general problem of testing and labeling was raised. It was pointed out by the purchase and sales department head, as summarized in the yearbook, that—

> When products are placed under the "Co-op" label, reliability of the source is one important consideration; Government grading standards are used wherever available; tests and analyses of samples are made, the C. C. W. spending upon laboratory tests considerably more than ordinary wholesale concerns. Contracts with producers provide for return and indemnity if goods fail to come up to the specified standards and formulas, and these are checked by sample tests of deliveries.

In more detail, he pointed out in the Cooperative Builder for March 21, 1936, that the wholesale depends on the Bureau of Standards formula for paint, the Department of Agriculture standards for milled rice; and that "goods such as condiments, cereals, etc., are purchased

only on the basis of chemical analyses and the grades made known to the consumer again through the use of the 'Co-op' label. Catsup is bought on the basis of its tomato solids content; dressings are carefully checked against the presence of fillers."

At the 1937 meeting, a resolution urged the directors to "use still greater care in the selection, testing, and analyzing of our Co-op label products, and as soon as conditions warrant, to establish our own testing laboratory." The management is becoming increasingly aware of the criticism (from a leading United States standards expert, among others) that the cooperatives still have far to go in demonstrating the high quality and the informative labeling which are their perfected ideals.

The Cooperatives as a Sociological Unit

To evaluate these associations simply in statistical terms, however, is to miss their true significance. The "Co-ops" in this area [4] are an integral and necessary part of the lives of their members. To the eye of the sociologist, they present a spectacle of a community, functioning within a larger community, and cohering through every major sociological tie—economic, cultural, racial, familial, personal, political.

1. Economically, the area forms a unit by virtue of several factors. The Central Cooperative Wholesale (C. C. W.), located at Superior, Wis., operates in seven organizational districts (principally in Minnesota, Michigan, and Wisconsin), of which the north Wisconsin district is one. From the wholesale, the member stores in this area—at Superior, Maple, Brule, Wentworth, and Iron River—purchase from 40 to 65 percent of their total supplies. A familiar sight along the highway connecting Superior and the outlying towns is the rumbling truck of a member store, laden either with the farmers' milk it brings to market, or with the store's merchandise which it has picked up from the wholesale on the return trip.

The property stake in the wholesale of these member societies is considerable, ranging from a $3,899 investment for the Superior society and $4,600 for the Iron River store, down through $3,100 and $2,400 and $1,300 for the Brule, Maple, and Wentworth stores, respectively;

[4] Below are listed the active cooperatives in the Superior (Wis.) area:
Brule Cooperative Association, Brule.
Central Cooperative Wholesale.
Cooperative Publishing Association.
Cooperative Services, Inc., Maple.
Cooperative Youth League of North Central States.
Farmers Cooperative Mercantile Association, Iron River.
Maple Farmers Cooperative Association, Maple.
Northern States Women's Cooperative Guild, Wentworth.
Northern Wisconsin Cooperative Federation.
Northern Wisconsin Cooperative Park Association, Brule.
People's Cooperative Society.
Tarmo Co.
Tyomies Society.
Wentworth Farmers Cooperative Association, Wentworth.
Workers and Farmers Cooperative Unity Alliance.
Workers' Cooperative Club.
Workers Educational Society ("Workers' Hall").
(Excluded from this list are the credit unions, an electric cooperative, an incipient health cooperative, an oil association which is a branch of a cooperative at St. Paul, Minn., a workers' mutual savings bank, and a cooperative insurance company.)

smaller investments are held by Cooperative Services at Maple (a regional wholesale agency for these stores), the cooperative boarding house at Superior, and the Workers' Mutual Savings Bank at Superior.

In Cooperative Services the five member stores hold a total investment of $12,500. The societies at Superior, Maple, and Brule are in turn financially linked to Cooperative Publishing Association, each holding a share of stock entitling them to membership; and 40 such shares, amounting to a $1,000 investment, being held by the wholesale itself. Similarly, the financial fortunes of the Northern Wisconsin Cooperative Park, at Brule, are a concern of the Brule and Superior stores which each have about $200 of shares therein, and of Cooperative Services which has loaned about $2,500 to the park.

2. Reenforcing the economic tie is a cultural bond which goes deep into the daily lives of the cooperators. It is the kind of bond which, were it not for the cooperative movement, the community might not effectively provide.

Superior, which is the urban focus of the predominantly rural cooperative movement in the area, has some of the largest coal and ore docks and grain elevators in the world, and as a joint port with Duluth is second only to New York, in volume of tonnage handled, among all maritime ports of the United States; yet it has a population of but 39,675, spread out over 42 square miles. In the neighboring rural towns of Wentworth, Brule, Iron River, and Maple, the populations are, respectively, a couple of hundred or so, 680, 787, and 809; their principal industries are dairy farming and the production of forest products.

In this rural and semiurban setting, not too much in the way of cultural opportunities can be expected. Further, such as there are in Superior would not be open to many of the town's older cooperators who are more familiar with the Finnish than with the English language. And to the cooperators in the rural areas, a long day of farm labor usually makes a bed more attractive than an evening journey to town. Consequently, the educational and recreational programs developed by the cooperatives themselves are fulfilling a real need.

Chief among the unifying educational forces in any town of the area is the cooperative press: the weekly Cooperative Builder, and the Finnish Cooperative Weekly, the latter printed entirely in Finnish. Subscriptions are usually offered free by the local cooperative store, as an advertising feature. Generally the store has its own educational committee, which receives bulletins and other material from the educational department of the Central Cooperative Wholesale. Among the women, educational work is carried on through the units, in each town, of the Women's Cooperative Guild. The bulletins, speeches, dramatic and musical entertainment, and study circles which this organization sponsors are paralleled by similar activity,

on the part of the units of the Cooperative Youth League (and, in some localities, of "Co-op Junior" groups for children under the Youth League age). Sometimes, men are also members of the Guild, sometimes they have their own organization, as illustrated by the "Cooperative Club" in Superior, an informal group of about 25 men which meets periodically and discusses current social, economic, and political problems.

A 15-minute weekly radio program on cooperation; a 4- to 6-week summer "youth" course and several 1- and 2-week summer camps for children at the Brule Cooperative Park; an 8-week training school for cooperative managers and other employees; an intensified campaign on the part of all the educational units, during the official "cooperation month" of October—these all strengthen the educational nexus. Recreationally too, the movement has special offerings of its own. The Cooperative Park, with its woods, Finnish steam baths, bathing and fishing facilities, and dance hall, is the scene of the annual festival sponsored by all the cooperative stores of the area, and is always available for cooperative picnics, dances, and meetings.

3. No observer of the northern Wisconsin cooperative scene can fail to note a certain racial uniformity, which constitutes one of the tightest of the bonds among the cooperators of the district. In fact, the feeling of the man-in-the-street in Superior (as sampled by talks with barbers, drug-store clerks, etc.) is that the cooperative organizations of the town are simply Finnish societies. The extent of Finnish participation is the more surprising in the light of their relatively minor role in the total population. Of the approximately 8,000 foreign-born white persons in Superior, about 2,000 were from Sweden, about 1,500 from Norway, over 1,000 from Canada, and but 688 from Finland.[5] Similarly, of the approximately 16,000 native white persons of foreign or mixed parentage, the parents of about 3,000 were from Norway, of another 3,000 were from Sweden, of another 3,000 were from Germany and Poland, of 2,500 were from Canada, and of only 841 were from Finland.[6]

Nevertheless, the movement in and around Superior is predominantly Finnish. In a few cooperatives the financial reports are still made out in the Finnish language, and their meetings are conducted in Finnish. At the 1937 meeting of the Northern States Women's Cooperative Guild, speeches were made in both English and Finnish. The annual meetings of the C. C. W. are also conducted in both languages; the main reports are presented only in English because they have already been presented to the Finnish delegates at their preliminary meeting on the preceding day.

[5] There were also 624 from Poland, 357 from Germany, 284 from Russia, and various smaller numbers from other countries.

[6] There were also 817 of Irish, and 534 of English, parentage—and various smaller numbers for other European countries.

There seems to be some evidence that the non-Finnish element is increasing, however. A membership survey of the People's Store at Superior in 1936 revealed that of the total of 409 members 188 were foreign-born Finns, 81 were Americans of Finnish extraction, and 143 were non-Finns (including many nationalities); in addition there were 21 foreign-born Finns and 229 non-Finns on the way to becoming members, through the crediting of their patronage refunds toward shares.

It was also pointed out to the writer, by the assistant director of the C. C. W.'s educational department, that his department's problem of inculcating cooperative principles and ideals among the wholesale's employees was beginning to be a little more difficult with the slow infiltration of employees lacking in the cooperative background possessed by those of Finnish stock.

The Finnish dominance is still unmistakable, however. And undesirable as that may be from any cosmopolitan view of the cooperative movement as a mass undertaking, the fact of racial unity constitutes at present a cohesive force of perceptible power.

4. Among the traditional forces for social unity, the family is a standard category. In two senses it is a pertinent category, in regard to the cooperative area under discussion.

In the first place, the family tie as among the members of a cooperator's family is reinforced by, and in turn reinforces, a cooperative tie. This is because each member of the family may absorb cooperative ideas from his own particular organization (the Women's Cooperative Guild, or the cooperative store, or the study club, or the youth league, or the junior group) and consequently not only strengthen the family unit, but add to the cooperative movement in general the increased interest and participation which is likely to flow from a greater family esprit de corps on the subject.

Secondly, the family pattern is reproduced, on a rather different scale, in the relationship between the Central Cooperative Wholesale and the member societies. The attention bestowed by the wholesale upon the latter is truly parental. It has taken the initiative in organizing several of the societies; it contributes to the financing of the youth courses and the adult training schools; its advertising department furnishes free monthly posters to the member stores, and handles the latter's group advertising; its auditing department has installed a uniform system of accounts in the member stores and regularly performs their audits; its educational department supervises the editorial policy of the Cooperative Builder, gives aid to member societies in the matter of their articles and bylaws, sends educational literature to them, and usually has a representative in attendance at their meetings.

5. A further source of unity is personal in nature. One example is the intermingling of personnel. In comparing the lists of directors

of such organizations as Cooperative Services, North Wisconsin Cooperative Federation, Cooperative Publishing Association, the wholesale, and the park, some names will be found duplicated.

Following the business meetings of the North Wisconsin Cooperative Federation (a coordinating and planning group of representatives of the stores in the area, and sometimes of the women's guild and the park), the participants adjourn to the home of one of them for a social evening. The Federation's annual "festival" at the park, which is the high light of recreational activity of the district, serves to broaden the area of friendly contacts. Every midafternoon employees of the wholesale assemble in the basement, over "Co-op" coffee and pastry. Finally, the "youth page" and "women's page" of the Cooperative Builder, and the personal columns which comment on recent experiences of cooperators in the area, including romantic attachments, marriages, births, and deaths, are a significant form of social cement.

6. There is one major rift in the solidarity of the district—the schism with the Communist faction. About 7 years ago, a few member societies of the C. C. W. and some of the latter's directors, were in favor of having the cooperatives make definite political and financial commitments to the Communist Party. At the wholesale's 1930 annual meeting the proposal was repudiated and three Communist-minded directors were removed. As a result, a separate, Communist wholesale (Workers and Farmers Cooperative Unity Alliance) was organized at Superior, with a few stores as members.[7] Several times, however, in the last few years, despite the growth of the Alliance, it has made "united front" proposals to the Central Cooperative Wholesale. The latter responded by adopting at its 1933 annual meeting the following conditions for a united front: (1) That publications supported by the alliance should cease their "vilification of and propaganda against" the wholesale, its member societies, and officers; (2) that the Communists discontinue their boycott of, and become patrons and supporters of, the wholesale and its member societies; (3) that the Alliance and Communist stores be discontinued; and (4) that the preceding conditions be fulfilled and maintained for at least 1 year upon which "further discussion of possibly remaining matters can be entered into."[8] At present the Communist societies do not patronize

[7] For a detailed account of the controversy with the Communists, written from a non-Communist point of view, see Cooperative Builder, vol. VI, No. 1, January 1931; also Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, May 1936 (p. 97).

[8] Since the 1936 meeting, the wholesale had decided it should not in future meetings discuss any united front proposals until the 1933 conditions had been complied with, the 1937 meeting did not discuss the following proposal, offered in October 1936 by the alliance: (1) That the wholesale accept into membership all local affiliates of the alliance without discrimination for political or other beliefs. (2) In those localities where alliance affiliates are competing with the wholesale's affiliates, the wholesale's board of directors shall urge its affiliates to elect committees to negotiate mergers with the respective alliance affiliates. (3) As soon as this is completed, the Unity Alliance will no longer have reason for its existence, and will immediately dissolve itself and transfer all its functions to the Central Cooperative Wholesale.

the C. C. W., although they still retain their membership. At the wholesale's 1936 annual meeting 52 votes out of a total of 406 (or 12.8 percent) were controlled by Communists, whereas 5 or 6 years ago, about 20 percent were so controlled.

The functioning of the cooperative movement in this area on the whole has been a remarkable example of the tight interlacing of many social bonds, creating a centripetal force which few social movements have ever possessed. In view of the special factors here cited, an objective appraiser of the success of the American consumer cooperative movement will not be too quick to generalize from the northern Wisconsin experience alone.

SICKNESS INSURANCE IN THE NETHERLANDS [1]

COMPULSORY sickness insurance was first provided for in the Netherlands by a law passed June 5, 1913, but this law was not put into effect, as the government which had drafted it was defeated soon after its adoption and the ministry which followed did not see fit to make it effective. Afterward, the development of social insurance was delayed by the war, and it was not until 1929 that agreement was reached by the various parties and the earlier law was again enacted, with amendments. This law, dated June 24, 1929, and effective March 1, 1930, covers all wage earners whose annual wages do not exceed a specified amount. Amendments to the law, passed December 19, 1930, December 29, 1932, April 7, 1933, and December 29, 1934, dealt particularly with administrative provisions, while an amendment passed April 22, 1937, established a uniform rate of contribution throughout the country.

Coverage

Sickness insurance is compulsory for workers whose annual wages do not exceed 3,000 florins. Those excluded from the system by the terms of the act are domestic servants, casual workers, apprentices who do not receive cash wages, seamen on ocean-going vessels other than those engaged in coastwise shipping, persons called for military service, those whose annual wages exceed the limit of 3,000 florins,[2] and railway workers covered by a special insurance system. In computing the total annual wage or salary, amounts represented by bonuses, vacation money, tips, and payment in kind are included. Workers whose daily wage is below 0.40 florin may be exempted from compulsory insurance. Voluntary insurance is open to workers who have ceased to be compulsorily insured, and to persons who have been insured, whether compulsorily or voluntarily, against sickness risks in foreign countries, and have chosen the Netherlands as their domicile.

Contributions

The insurance funds are formed by contributions from employers and the insured to the sickness funds maintained by the labor boards (regional bodies on which employers' and workers' organizations are represented) and the industrial associations (nonprofit recognized associations formed by one or more central organizations or associa-

[1] Based on report by J. P. Moffitt, American consul, and William Barnes, vice consul, Amsterdam, Oct. 8, 1937; with additional data from International Labor Office (Geneva), Legislative Series 1929, and Industrial and Labor Information, issues of Feb. 24, 1930, and Aug. 16, 1937.

[2] Florin at par=68.1 cents; exchange value, September 1937, 55.2 cents.

tions of employers and one or more central trade-union organizations or associations of workers). The contribution rates are fixed by the Crown, and are subject to revision at least once in every 5 years. Prior to the amendment of April 1937, which came into force on July 1, 1937, the law had provided that the contribution could be fixed at a different rate for the area covered by each labor board, with a view to adjusting the rates to the financial result of the insurance system in the area of each separate board. No use had been made of this power to fix differing rates, uniform rates being in effect for all the labor boards, until July 1, 1936, when differential rates were introduced. However, it was found that in practice the system of differentials resulted in various difficulties and inequalities, and as a result, the law enacted in 1937 provided for a uniform rate of contribution throughout the country. At the present time the uniform rate is 1.8 percent of wages, divided equally between the employer and the worker. The employer is responsible for the payment of the premiums, and is authorized to deduct the employee's contribution from his wages. If the wages of a worker consist entirely of payments in kind, whether or not including board and instruction, the employer is required to pay the full amount of the contribution.

A higher rate of premium is fixed for industries shown by statistical proof to have more than a normal risk of sickness. In these industries, which are defined by law, the contribution is 3 percent of wages, the employer paying 2.1 percent and the worker 0.9 percent. The rate for workers employed in the window and house-cleaning and plastering and whitewashing industries is 4.3 percent, 3.4 being paid by the employer and 0.9 percent by the workman. The highest rate, 4.75 percent, is paid in the coal-mining industry, 3.85 percent of which is paid by the employer and 0.9 percent by the worker. A special rate, established for laborers on relief-work projects, amounts to 5 percent, divided equally between employer and worker.

The law, prior to the enactment of the 1937 amendment, provided for an increase in the rate of contribution—or for a reduction of any additional benefits—if contributions were insufficient; but the amended act authorizes the Crown to charge the deficit of a labor board to the other boards, if the contribution, during 1 financial year, does not cover the expenses of the fund including the amount which must be set aside as a reserve fund or for repayment of advances received.

The labor board fixes the time limits within which the contributions must be paid. No contribution is due for days for which an insured person receives pecuniary benefit. The State makes no contribution to the insurance system.

Benefits

Insured persons who are unable to work on account of sickness are entitled to a sickness benefit in cash, which as a rule amounts

to 80 percent of the daily wage. The benefit is paid for each day, beginning with the third day (except Sundays, but including church holidays), for the duration of the illness, but not to exceed 6 months. Since Sundays are excluded, the maximum benefit period is 156 days. The maximum daily wage on which the benefit is calculated is 8 florins, so that the maximum daily benefit is 6.4 florins. "Daily wage" is defined as the average daily wage earned by workmen of a category similar to that of the sick person during the 13 weeks prior to the beginning of sickness. The cash benefit is the only one paid under the sickness-insurance law, with the exception of maternity care.

A maternity benefit equal to the full amount of the daily wage (maximum 8 florins) is paid to employed married women for 6 weeks before childbirth and for the duration of incapacity caused thereby, but not for more than 6 months nor in any case for less than 6 weeks after the date of confinement. A married woman who is insured is entitled in case of confinement to the attendance of a medical practitioner or a midwife provided by and at the expense of the body responsible for the payment of the pecuniary sick benefit, unless she is otherwise provided for.

In certain cases, as decided by the Crown with respect to the district of a particular labor board as regards the persons insured with the sick fund, the amount of the cash benefit may be increased to not more than 90 percent of the daily wage of the insured person, and may begin on the first or second day of incapacity for work, and may be paid up to a maximum of 12 months. Aside from the benefits paid in maternity cases, medical benefits and medical assistance to dependents are provided by the voluntary sick funds, which operate independently of the sickness-insurance law.

The law provided for the establishment of a fund to carry out or promote measures for the prevention of sickness among insured persons and to provide medical treatment, but although the sick funds bill (designed to carry out this section of the act) has been under consideration for some years, it has not yet been passed by Parliament.

As a rule, anyone desiring medical attendance is free to choose a physician. However, the insured workman who claims sick benefit is obliged to have a medical examination by a physician appointed either by the labor board or by the approved industrial association involved. If the physician so orders, the workman must enter a hospital or other institution selected by the physician for such an examination. The expenses connected with the medical examination are charged to the sick fund or the industrial association.

In general, the procedure to be followed by the insured workman in case of sickness is as follows: Not later than 24 hours after becoming unable to perform work, the workman must report his illness

to the sickness-insurance organization with which his employer is affiliated. In cases in which the employer is obliged to report the sickness of his employees to the insurance organization, the workman must also report his illness to the employer not later than 24 hours after his disability commences.

If, upon receipt of the "sickness report," the case is found to come under the jurisdiction of the executive organization involved, it is accepted for further examination, to be made by officials or inspectors, who are usually medical men. As soon after the examination as possible, the executive organization decides whether or not the sickness benefit shall be granted and in what amount. During the time the insured workman is in receipt of sick benefit, he is under constant supervision, and if he fails to observe the prescribed regulations the benefit can be withdrawn.

Upon his recovery the insured workman must report to the executive organization as soon as possible, but in any case not later than the day on which his inability to work has ended. In case he receives sick benefit, he must at the same time report as soon as possible, but in no case later than 24 hours after he has resumed work, the day on which he is to resume his work.

Conditions governing payment of benefit.—The insured workman is not entitled to the payment of benefit—

(*a*) If he is neither a contributor to an approved sick fund nor in a position to obtain medical assistance.

(*b*) If the sickness was caused willfully.

(*c*) If he is confined to a prison, a Government labor colony, a reformatory or industrial school, or has been placed under the care of a benevolent society, foundation, or institution.

(*d*) If he was exempted from the insurance on account of age or incapacity to perform work, at the time the insurance went into effect, or if he is mentally or physically defective to such an extent as to prevent him from obtaining work.

The labor board is authorized to refuse the full or partial payment of benefits in the following cases:

(*a*) If the inability to perform work existed at the time the insurance commenced.

(*b*) In the case of pregnancy which originated prior to the date on which the insurance commenced or application for the insurance was made; in the case of a confinement that took place within 6 months after such date.

(*c*) If the inability to perform work because of sickness is connected with any action on the part of the insured workman which is considered to be a penal offense; if he is known to conduct himself in an immoral manner; if the illness is the result of immorality.

(*d*) If the insured workman does not invoke medical assistance within a reasonable space of time, and does not place himself under

medical treatment during the entire course of his illness, or if he does not follow the instructions given him by the attendant physician.

(*e*) If the insured workman, during the time he is unable to work, is guilty of such actions as to impede his recovery or of misbehavior when admitted to a hospital or similar institution.

(*f*) If the insured workman, without giving an adequate reason therefor, does not comply with a request to appear before, or furnish information to, either the labor board or the president thereof; or if the medical examination by a physician appointed by the labor board is prevented, through the fault of the insured workman.

(*g*) If the insured workman does not observe the regulations in reporting his inability to perform work, or if he does not follow certain instructions of the labor board in regard to his conduct during sickness. In the former case, payment of the benefit can be refused for all days prior to the third day after the day on which the report of sickness was received.

(*h*) If the insured workman has reached the age of 70 years, and if it cannot be proved that he has worked for wages during at least 60 days in the half year immediately preceding the day on which the inability to perform work occurred.

(*i*) If the insured workman is in the habit of abusing the use of liquor, the labor board is authorized either to replace the cash benefit by a benefit in some other form equal in value to the cash benefit, or to use the cash benefit in some other manner for the assistance of the insured workman or of the persons who depend upon him for support.

If the supervising physician considers it to be in the interest of the sick workman that he shall do part of his work, and the workman is afforded an opportunity to earn at least 50 percent of his wages, the sickness benefit paid for the duration of such work is set at the amount by which his normal daily wage exceeds the partial wage he actually receives. If, in such case, the workman should refuse to perform work, his sickness benefit can be reduced by 50 percent. Also, if the insured workman has been admitted to a hospital or to a similar institution in a manner which is not in accordance with any special agreement entered into by him, or if he, as a boarding workman, is being nursed at the expense of his employer without the latter recovering the expenses from him in accordance with provisions of the Civil Code, the insured workman is paid not more than one-third of the sickness benefit, if in the opinion of the executive insurance organization, others are not dependent upon him for support; the other two-thirds of the sickness benefit is, if so requested, paid to the employer or to the hospital or similar institution to which the workman has been admitted. In case the compensation amounts to less than two-thirds of the benefit, or if no compensation is demanded, the benefit which is not paid to other beneficiaries is paid to the insured workman.

No sickness benefit is paid in the case of sickness resulting from an accident, bodily harm, or occupational diseases, such as described in the Accident Law of 1921 and the Agricultural Accident Law of 1922, inasmuch as compensation in such cases is granted under those laws.

Length of waiting periods.—In ordinary cases of illness, the payment of sickness benefits is due on the third day subsequent to the day on which the inability to perform work commenced. The first day on which, because of illness, no work was performed, or the day on which work was stopped during the working hours, is considered as the first day of the inability to perform work.

The sickness benefit shall be paid not later than during the calendar week following that for which the payment was due.

If an insured workman during a period of 12 months has been paid sickness benefits for 156 days (whether continuous or not), due to inability to perform work as a result of one and the same illness, no benefit shall be paid in excess of 78 days during the period of 12 months immediately following, if and insofar as the repeated inability to perform work is caused by the same illness. The same applies to any subsequent period of 12 months, as long as a sickness benefit was paid during the preceding 12 months on account of inability to perform work due to the same illness. The number of 78 "benefit days", however, is increased by as many days as the number of days in the 12 months immediately preceding during which a benefit was so paid was less than 78. The period of 12 months is considered to begin on the first day for which a sick benefit is paid because of inability to perform work due to a sickness, as referred to in the beginning of this paragraph.

In determining the duration of the payment of a benefit in case of repeated inability to perform work, due to illness, the law provides that a case of illness is a continuation of a previous illness and forms a part thereof, if inability to perform work occurs again not later than four weeks subsequent to the last benefit day due to the previous case of illness. In other words, in such a case no new payment of sickness benefits can be made during 6 months, but the duration of the payment of benefits must be restricted to a space of time not exceeding the difference between 156 (or 78 as the case may be) benefit days and the duration of the previous case (cases) of illness.

Age limits for eligibility to sickness benefits.—There are no age limits with respect to eligibility for sickness benefits.

Method of Settlement of Disputes

Each industrial association is obliged to establish an independent arbitration court, the composition of which will be decided by administrative order, which is to arbitrate the association's decisions on the granting or refusal of sickness benefits. The regulations of the asso-

ciation, which have been approved by the Minister of Social Affairs, contain a statement of those cases in which an appeal may be made on a decision of the association. The insured workmen, the employers, or both, can appeal the decisions to the court of arbitration of the industrial association involved, which renders an arbitral award in the first instance.

With regard to the decisions of the labor boards that are susceptible of appeal, notice of appeal can be given in the first instance to the boards of appeal involved. In case the appellants do not agree with the verdict of the court of arbitration, or of the board of appeal, they can appeal such verdict or arbitral award in the last resort to the Central Court of Appeals, located at Utrecht.

There is only one case in which no appeal against the decision of a court of arbitration or of a board of appeal is possible, i. e., if the case in question relates to the nonexistence or the continuance of the inability to perform work on account of sickness.

Administration

The sickness-insurance law is administered by those in charge of the sick funds of the labor boards and by the approved industrial associations. The latter organizations must be considered as the principal administrators. The employer, who can be a contributor to only one of these organizations, decides which organization will insure his employees, and he may choose either an industrial association or a labor board.

Labor boards.—The labor boards render assistance in the execution of the laws and general orders in council which relate to social insurance and which require such assistance. Insofar as such execution has not been granted by law to other institutions, the labor boards are charged with the execution of the accident-insurance law and the agricultural-accident law, the sickness-insurance law, the compulsory invalidity-and-old-age insurance law, and the voluntary old-age insurance law.

Each labor board is composed of a chairman, two employer members (with two substitutes), and two worker members (with two substitutes). The chairman is appointed by the Crown. The members and their substitutes are appointed by the Minister of Social Affairs on the recommendation of such organizations of employers and workers as have been selected by the Minister. They hold office for 3 years and resign on the first Tuesday in October. The National Insurance Bank exercises supervision over the labor boards, which are located in 24 important cities in the Netherlands.

Approved industrial associations.—In general, these are associations which have been established by the central organizations of employers' and workers' unions for the special purpose of administering the

sickness-insurance law. They are not allowed to make a profit. Supervision over the approved industrial associations (53 in number) is exercised by a supervisory board (College van Toezicht, The Hague).

These associations are obliged to draw up regulations, which are subject to the approval of the Minister of Social Affairs. In these regulations, the association is authorized, among other things, to determine that a higher benefit than the law provides may be paid to workmen insured by the association under the sickness-insurance law; or that the benefit may be paid during a longer period; or that, in certain contingencies, additional payments be made (e. g., in case of death). These regulations may permit persons who are not considered workmen, under the law, to take out voluntary sickness insurance.

As long as no evidence has been given by the industrial association to the labor board in whose jurisdiction the industrial enterprise is located, to the effect that the workmen have been insured with the industrial association in question, the workmen will be insured with the sick fund of the labor board.

The employer who is a contributor either to one of the approved industrial associations or to the sick fund of a labor board may transfer his membership either to another approved industrial association or to a sick fund of another labor board, provided he first goes through certain formalities. The transfer must always take place on the first day of a given month. In case of transfer to another insurance organization, the current benefit payments remain for the account of the original insurance organization.

In a case in which an employer has lost his membership in an insurance organization (e. g., on account of default of payment), the workmen will be insured with the sick fund of the labor board as long as no evidence has been received by the labor board from another industrial association that he has become a member of such other association.

It is not necessary for the workman to make application for insurance against sickness under the sickness-insurance law. The fact that he is working for wages in an industrial enterprise, in accordance with this law, means that he is protected by such insurance. If a workman within the meaning of the law has been employed by an employer who has not had his employees insured with any of the approved industrial associations, he is insured by the sick fund of the labor board.

The employer is obliged to make all statements required of him by the law or by the general orders in council, and to supply all information requested by a labor board or by an approved industrial association, in case he is a member of such, provided that the information requested bears upon matters relating to the observance of the law. Furthermore, the employer is obliged to display a notice in his factory,

workshop, etc., in a place readily accessible to his employees, indicating the name and address of the labor board or the industrial association of which is a member, and by which, in consequence thereof, his employees have been insured. This notice must also contain a statement as to the percentage by which the wages of the workmen are to be reduced for the payment of their share of the premium, as well as a statement as to the manner in which the notification of sickness should be made. The form of this notice is determined by the Minister of Social Affairs.

Statistics of Operation

The number of persons covered by the sickness-insurance system is not given in the official statistics. However, the latest figures available covering number of enterprises and employers belonging to the insurance organizations, total contributions paid by employers and workers, total amount of benefits, average benefit paid, and amount of reserves in the insurance funds, for 1934, are given in the 1936 edition of the Statistical Annual issued by the Central Bureau of Statistics.

The statement below shows the number of enterprises and employers in the sickness-insurance organizations, by year, from 1930 to 1934:

	Labor boards	*Industrial associations*
1930	108, 799	158, 266
1931	118, 694	[1] 163, 456
1932	115, 634	166, 235
1933	112, 698	160, 040
1934	116, 789	159, 330

[1] Data incomplete.

The total amounts of contributions paid to the sickness-insurance organizations by employers and workers, and cash benefits paid from 1930 to 1934 are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Sickness-Insurance Contributions Paid by Employers and Employees to Labor Boards and Industrial Associations, and Benefits Paid by Year, 1930 to 1934*

[Average exchange rate of the florin has varied from 40.23 cents in 1930 to 67.38 cents in 1934]

Year	Contributions (premiums) paid to—			Cash benefits paid on behalf of—		
	Labor boards	Industrial associations	Total	Labor boards	Industrial associations	Total
	Florins	*Florins*	*Florins*	*Florins*	*Florins*	*Florins*
1930	1, 233, 000	[1] 19, 600, 000	20, 833, 000	1, 982, 000	15, 041, 000	27, 023, 000
1931	3, 929, 000	25, 000, 000	28, 929, 000	2, 658, 000	[1] 18, 724, 000	21, 382, 000
1932	4, 251, 000	18, 400, 000	22, 651, 000	2, 435, 000	12, 893, 000	15, 328, 000
1933	4, 242, 000	15, 900, 000	20, 142, 000	2, 307, 000	10, 920, 000	13, 227, 000
1934	[2] 4, 375, 000	14, 700, 000	19, 075, 000	2, 275, 000	9, 999, 000	12, 274, 000

[1] Data incomplete. [2] Preliminary figures.

Table 2 shows average cash benefits per case, paid in ordinary cases and in maternity cases, 1930 to 1934.

TABLE 2.—*Average Cash Benefit Under Netherlands Sickness-Insurance Law, by Years and by Type of Benefit, 1930 to 1934*

Year	Labor boards				Industrial associations				Grand average
	Ordinary benefit	Pregnancy benefit	Confinement benefit	All types of benefit	Ordinary benefit	Pregnancy benefit	Confinement benefit	All types of benefit	
	Florins	*Florins*	*Florins*	*Florins*	*Florins*	*Florins*	*Florins*	*Florins*	*Florins*
1930	71.24	73.17	93.87	79.43	[1] 51.87	[1] 94.96	[1] 106.00	84.28	81.85
1931	56.85	76.73	89.68	74.42	[1] 44.49	[1] 69.75	[1] 72.84	62.36	68.39
1932	55.53	74.09	80.39	70.00	46.55	[1] 66.34	[1] 65.11	59.33	64.67
1933	49.56	63.98	72.08	61.87	38.84	[1] 61.72	[1] 64.17	54.91	58.39
1934	50.12	60.05	65.74	58.64	42.29	62.96	[1] 68.38	57.88	58.25

[1] Data incomplete.

Reserves in insurance funds of labor boards and industrial associations, 1930 to 1934, were as follows:

TABLE 3.—*Amounts of Reserves in Netherlands Sickness-Insurance Funds, by Year, 1930 to 1934*

Year	Labor boards	Industrial associations	Total
	Florins	*Florins*	*Florins*
1930	62,000	[1] 972,000	[1] 1,034,000
1931	194,000	[1] 1,145,000	[1] 1,339,000
1932	229,000	932,000	1,161,000
1933	220,000	[1] 803,000	[1] 1,023,000
1934	210,000	860,000	1,070,000

[1] Data incomplete.

DISMISSAL-COMPENSATION PLANS, 1937

THE PAYMENT of dismissal compensation by industrial companies to employees having a certain length of service was a development largely of the recent business depression, as relatively few plans had been made effective prior to 1929. A recent study by the National Industrial Conference Board [1] analyzes the plans of 172 companies, including 93 formal active plans, 60 informal active plans, and 19 discontinued plans.

The payment of allowances to employees who for various reasons can no longer be retained by an industrial enterprise is based in general on the recognition of the employer's obligations both to the employees and to the community; but it may also be motivated by practical consideration of the effect that discharges will have on the company's industrial and public relations. Prior to the depression the most outstanding examples of dismissal payments were those made in 1926 by the Hart, Schaffner & Marx Co., clothing manufacturers of Chicago, who were forced to discharge 236 cutters because of the introduction of machinery for this operation, and in 1929 by the United States Rubber Co., when it was found necessary to close permanently two of the company's plants.

With the advent of the depression and the growing unemployment, industrial management was well aware of the deflationary effect of a large volume of unemployment and of the hardships to employees and to the community caused by the loss of jobs. Measures were taken to ease the situation as far as possible; among these were spreading work, doing maintenance and repair work about the plant, instituting new plant-improvement work, and in some cases accepting orders at no profit or at a loss in order to provide work for the employees. However, as it became necessary to reduce pay rolls, increasing attention was directed toward reducing the inevitable hardships to the employees, and in numerous instances a definite policy governing dismissals was adopted which, in general, gave due weight to age and length of service.

While dismissal compensation represents one of the more recent efforts of business management to fulfill what is regarded by some as a

[1] National Industrial Conference Board, Inc. Dismissal Compensation, by F. Beatrice Brower. New York, 247 Park Ave., 1937.

social obligation, it is stated in the report that "its future is likely to be influenced by the extent of, and experience with, social-security legislation."

Of the 93 formal plans covered by the study, 66 provided for payments graduated according to length of service and 27 for uniform payments to all employees who were discharged, without regard to age or length of service. Nineteen of the plans which were in operation during the height of the depression were discontinued when conditions improved.

The employment in companies with dismissal plans, classified by size of establishment and type of plan, is shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Active and Discontinued Dismissal-Compensation Plans, by Type of Plan and Size of Establishment*

Type of plan	Total		100–999 employees		1,000–4,999 employees		5,000 employees and over	
	Number of companies	Number of employees	Number of companies	Number of employees	Number of companies	Number of employees	Number of companies	Number of employees
All plans	[a] 164	1,162,188	53	28,319	70	169,083	41	964,786
Formal active plans	[b] 90	616,730	29	16,125	35	82,176	26	518,429
Graduated payments	[c] 64	584,533	13	8,389	25	57,715	26	518,429
Uniform payments	[c] 26	32,197	16	7,736	10	24,461		
Informal active plans	[b] 57	211,692	20	9,463	26	66,019	11	136,210
Discontinued plans	[c] 17	333,766	4	2,731	9	20,888	4	310,147

[a] Not including 8 companies which did not report on employment.
[b] Not including 3 companies which did not report on employment.
[c] Not including 2 companies which did not report on employment.
[d] Not including 1 company which did not report on employment.

Of the formal dismissal-compensation plans 51 were in manufacturing industries and 42 in financial institutions, mercantile establishments, and public utilities. The following table gives the number of plans by type of plan and industry.

TABLE 2.—*Distribution of Formal Dismissal-Compensation Plans, by Type of Plan and Industry*

Industry	Number of plans providing—	
	Graduated dismissal compensation	Uniform-payment dismissal compensation
All industries	66	27
Manufacturing	37	14
Chemicals	3	2
Electrical appliances	6	1
Food products	2	1
Metal products, other	4	3
Paper and printing	4	3
Petroleum, extraction and refining	6	----
Rubber products	3	----
Textiles	7	1
Other manufacturing industries	2	3
Nonmanufacturing	29	13
Financial institutions	9	12
Mercantile establishments	9	1
Public utilities	11	----

Of the above 93 plans, 6 were adopted before 1920, 22 between 1920 and 1929, 35 from 1930 to 1934, 8 in 1935 and 1936, and in 22 instances the date of adoption was not given.

Characteristics of Plans

Since dismissal-compensation plans have in general been adopted in emergencies, they are less generally standardized than many other industrial-relations activities. However, two main types have developed. These are the graduated-compensation and the uniform-payment types of plans. The first, which is considered in the report reviewed to be true dismissal compensation, is followed by 66 of the companies having formal plans, but there is no uniformity in the length of service required or the rates of compensation. Also, not all of the companies grant discharge allowances to all classes of employees. In 43 instances both salaried and wage-earning employees are covered by the plan, 3 plans cover wage earners only, and 20 plans salaried workers only. However, 12 of the companies paying allowances only to salaried employees are banks, insurance companies, or mercantile establishments which employ a large percentage of salaried workers, so that actually only 8 companies definitely exclude the wage-earning group. Four of the plans covering both groups of workers give a less liberal allowance, on discharge, to the wage earners.

Forty-five of the sixty-six companies pay only for permanent dismissal while the remainder also compensate for extended lay-offs. The compensation in case of dismissal is paid primarily for causes

beyond the control of the worker. While many of the plans were originally adopted to facilitate necessary reductions in personnel, it is stated that in a number of instances they have been expanded to cover discharges for inefficiency. Usually the most obviously inefficient workers are discharged before becoming eligible for dismissal compensation, but many others who through length of service have gained a permanent status may, either because of age or a change in processes, not be able to do satisfactory work. About half of the graduated dismissal-compensation plans have adopted the policy of compensating for permanent discharge because of inefficiency. Several companies also pay termination allowances to employees who have become physically incapacitated, although in some cases payment is at a lower rate.

A certain length of service is required in all plans, the period varying from a minimum of 2 to 6 months in 9 companies to 18 years in 1 company; 34 companies, however, required only 2 years' service or less. Minimum age requirements have been set up by only 4 companies, but in no case was the minimum age fixed at more than 30 years. There is no uniformity in the plans which take into consideration the earnings and length of service, but in general the plans fall into three classifications based on the methods used in determining the amount of compensation. In the first classification, which covers plans in which the dismissal compensation is a portion of the earnings multiplied by the years of service, there are 28 companies. Nine of these companies give a week's pay for each year of service, with no limitation on the total amount. The remaining 19 companies have in force various modifications of this plan.

The second classification includes plans based on service groupings (for example, less than 5 years' service, 5 but less than 10 years, and 15 years and over) and all employees within a service period receive a dismissal wage calculated according to a uniform formula. There were 21 plans in this group. These plans in every case set a maximum number of weeks' wages or salaries which will be paid.

The third classification—plans based on the age as well as the service period—covers 15 companies. In this group of plans also, little uniformity was found although they were, in general, more liberal in their terms than the other two types.

The uniform-payment plans are maintained principally for salaried workers; only 7 of the 27 companies having this type of plan include the wage earners in the organization. This type of plan is in line with the custom which has been in force in many companies, of giving clerical workers 1 or 2 weeks' pay instead of a notice, in the event of dismissal. This practice arose from the fact that some companies consider it advisable to let an employee go as soon as he receives his dismissal notice, in order to avoid an adverse effect on his work as well

as the work of others. Since this type of compensation is given chiefly for unsatisfactory work there is comparatively little stress upon length of service and 3 or 6 months, or at most a year, is usually all the service required.

While informal dismissal-wage plans were reported by 60 companies with more than 200,000 workers, the report states that since such plans are discretionary and since both long service and need are the basis of the awards, they more nearly resemble charity than a true dismissal-wage plan.

The dismissal wage is paid in a lump sum by two-thirds of the companies with graduated plans and by all but one of the companies with uniform-payment plans, which are covered in this study. A system of installment payments is thought to raise the worker's hope that the dismissal is not permanent and thus not only prolong an unpleasant situation but tend to make him less diligent in searching for work than he would be if he believed the job definitely closed to him. However, 11 companies pay the compensation in weekly or semimonthly installments until the total has been paid and a lump-sum payment is made only when it is considered there is a good reason for it.

The payment of a dismissal wage has also been associated with measures designed to keep to a minimum the number of employees dismissed. Such measures include the policy of not hiring new workers when the installation of labor-saving equipment is contemplated; the transfer of employees to another department and retraining of such workers when necessary; transfer of employees to another plant of the company when an entire operation is closed down; and where a company pension plan is in operation, the retiring of employees who are eligible for a pension or those who, while not having reached the retirement age, have nevertheless had a long period of service with the company. In addition to the effort to provide employment within the company, a number of concerns have also endeavored to place these workers in other employment.

During the period 1930–36, the 25 companies reporting on this point paid $5,286,820 to 12,180 employees as dismissal compensation. The largest amount was paid in 1933 when 5,054 employees received $2,073,966. The plan was not in effect in all these companies throughout the entire period; only 8 had such a plan in 1930. The average amount of dismissal compensation paid to the 12,180 employees was $434 per discharged employee.

The report contains the following statement summing up the results of the operation of these plans.

> Dismissal-compensation plans are intended primarily to benefit employees whom it has been necessary to discharge. On the whole, company managements feel that these plans have fulfilled their chief purpose. They have helped to tide the employees over the emergency and have enabled them to make better readjustments than would otherwise have been possible. In cases where employees have

been investigated since discharge, it has been found that the money has been wisely expended.

For the most part, employees have appreciated the company's help, and have left it satisfied that they have received fair treatment. In isolated instances this has not been true, but only 5 out of the 93 companies reported dissatisfaction of this nature. Even in these companies, however, the attitude of the majority of discharged workers has been sufficiently appreciative to justify the continuance of the plans.

While the benefits that management derives from the dismissal-wage plan are mostly incidental, they are nonetheless important. The advantage most frequently mentioned is the improvement in the morale of the working force due to the payment of these dismissal wages. With the ever present fear of unemployment partly relieved by the assurance of a dismissal wage, the worker possesses a peace of mind that makes for reliability, loyalty, and careful craftsmanship. As one company official stated, "The general morale of employees is favorable when they feel that the company is providing security and fair treatment."

TRADE-UNION BENEFITS, 1936

A TOTAL of $34,608,691 was paid in benefits to members, in 1936, by 67 national and international unions in active affiliation with the American Federation of Labor during that year and the 4 unaffiliated railroad brotherhoods. This total is exclusive of strike benefits and of all benefits paid by local unions either in addition to or instead of payments made through the headquarters of the international unions. These data are compiled from reports received annually by the American Federation of Labor and published in the annual report of its executive council.[1]

As reported, nearly one-third of the amount was paid out by 13 unions as assistance to unemployed members. Details of the amounts paid by each organization for specified services are given in the following table:

[1] American Federation of Labor. Report of the Executive Council to the 57th Annual Convention, Denver, 1937 (p. 18).

Benefit Services of Standard National and International Unions, by Type of Benefit Paid, 1936

Organization	Death	Sick	Unemployment	Old age	Disability	Miscellaneous	Total [1]
Bakery and Confectionery Workers' International Union	$39,975	$132,599				$11,736	$184,310
Barbers' International Union, Journeyman	115,000	41,240					156,240
Blacksmiths, Drop Forgers and Helpers, International Brotherhood of	9,050					393	9,443
Boiler Makers, Iron Ship Builders and Helpers of America, International Brotherhood of	334,700		$1,559			3,784	340,043
Bookbinders, International Brotherhood of	59,500		5,735			820	66,055
Boot and Shoe Workers' Union	27,450						27,450
Brewery, Flour, Cereal, and Soft Drink Workers International Union of the United	7,635	6,200	820			156,932	171,587
Bricklayers, Masons, and Plasterers' International Union	210,213			$679,386		11,089	900,688
Brick and Clay Workers, United	10,580						10,580
Bridge and Structural Iron Workers, International Association of	22,550			76,806			99,356
Carmen of America, Brotherhood of Railway	151,250				$8,450		159,700
Carpenters and Joiners, United Brotherhood of	497,640			379,959	8,600		886,199
Carvers' Association, International Wood	1,200						1,200
Cigarmakers' International Union						6,200	6,200
Clerks, National Federation of Post Office	50,000	15,730			500		66,230
Clerks, Brotherhood of Railway	297,150						297,150
Clerks' International Protective Association, Retail	6,225					2,641	8,866
Coopers' International Union	3,850						3,850
Diamond Workers' Protective Union	1,500						1,500
Electrical Workers, International Brotherhood of	405,188			288,053			693,241
Engineers, International Union of Operating	60,275					1,657	61,932
Engravers' Union, International Photo	158,376	45,213	614,454				818,043
Firemen and Oilers, International Brotherhood of	25,650	4,500				8,000	38,150
Foundry Employees, International Brotherhood of	1,600					4,669	6,269
Garment Workers, United	26,950						26,950
Glass Bottle Blowers' Association	41,750						41,750
Glass Cutters' League, Window	7,000					1,600	8,600
Glass Workers' Union, American Flint	18,000					62,194	80,194
Granite Cutters' International Association	45,669					4,250	49,919
Hatters, Cap, and Millinery Workers' International Union, United	37,079		1,930			24,834	63,843
Hod Carriers, Building, and Common Laborers' Union, International	39,050						39,050
Hotel and Restaurant Employees' International Alliance and Bartenders' International League	97,088	48,675				234,643	380,406
Lathers, International Union of Wood, Wire, and Metal	31,409						31,409
Leather Workers International Union, United						1,250	1,250
Letter Carriers, National Association of	195,088	148,996					344,084
Lithographers' International Protective and Beneficial Association	51,500	8,730	70,000	6,040		5,500	141,770
Machinists, International Association of	277,000	15,400	260,200	8,500		232,700	793,800
Maintenance of Way Employees, Brotherhood of	260,893						260,893
Marble, Slate, and Stone Polishers, Rubbers, and Sawyers, Tile and Marble Setters' Helpers, and Terrazzo Workers' Helpers, International Association of	3,300	75				75	3,450

[1] Items do not in all cases add to the totals given, owing to the fact that the cents have been rounded off.

Benefit Services of Standard National and International Unions, by Type of Benefit Paid, 1936—Continued

Organization	Death	Sick	Unemployment	Old age	Disability	Miscellaneous	Total
Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen, Amalgamated	$22,050					$17,130	$39,180
Metal Workers' International Association, Sheet	30,400					300	30,700
Molders' Union, International	233,191	$72,766	$59,794				365,751
Musicians, American Federation of	351,214	72,637					423,851
Painters, Decorators, and Paperhangers, Brotherhood of	225,881			$4,400			230,281
Paper Makers, International Brotherhood of	10,682					380	11,062
Pattern Makers' League	14,676					3,045	17,721
Paving Cutters' Union	1,835					446	2,281
Plasterers' International Association, Operative	70,700			500,000			570,700
Plumbers and Steam Fitters, United Association of	148,340	108,450				486	257,276
Polishers, Buffers, Platers, and Helpers' International Union, Metal	5,800					6,240	12,040
Potters, National Brotherhood of Operative	19,765	5,064				33,055	57,884
Printing Pressmen's and Assistants' Union, International	271,892	56,261	514,146	196,196		1,109	1,039,604
Pulp, Sulphite, and Paper Mill Workers, International Brotherhood of			7,500			7,000	14,500
Quarry Workers, International Union	1,275			800		3,718	5,793
Railway Employees, Amalgamated Association of Street and Electric	780,659	72,194		123,400	$2,195		978,448
Railway Mail Association	64,000				112,983		176,983
Roofers, Damp and Waterproof Workers' Association, United Slate, Tile, and Composition	9,200						9,200
Sheep Shearers' Union	850			2,650		749	4,249
Stereotypers' and Electrotypers' Union, International [2]	59,809	6,090	258,347	23,998		1,333	349,577
Stonecutters' Association, Journeymen	13,500						13,500
Stove Mounters' International Union	10,230					9,802	20,032
Switchmen's Union	171,175				14,450	5,525	191,150
Telegraphers, Order of Railroad	371,875					9,367	381,242
Telegraphers' Union, Commercial	1,700						1,700
Tobacco Workers' International Union	550	9,253					9,803
Typographical Union, International	672,165	67,100	195,619	2,621,98	8	469,388	4,026,260
Wall Paper Crafts, United	5,100						5,100
Unaffiliated unions:							
Locomotive Engineers, Brotherhood of	1,685,967		9,000,00	0	141,179	173,368	11,000,514
Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen, Brotherhood of	1,111,718			372,380	1,109,458	2,100	2,595,656
Railroad Trainmen, Brotherhood of	1,964,659	148,023		4,350	1,182,190	76,324	3,375,546
Railway Conductors of America, Order of	862,413	187,619			8,500	50,912	1,109,444
Total	12,821,607	1,272,818	10,990,104	5,288,906	2,588,506	1,646,750	34,608,691

[2] Includes benefits paid by local unions.

CANADIAN TRADE-UNION BENEFITS, 1936 [1]

AMONG THE 28 Canadian central labor bodies, the 5 listed below reported the payment in 1936 of $67,989.17 in benefits—an increase of $40,617.93 as compared with the expenditures in this connection of 5 organizations reporting in 1935.

[1] Data are from Canada, Department of Labor, Twenty-sixth Annual Report on Labor Organization in Canada, Ottawa, 1937, p. 208.

Benefits Paid by 5 Canadian Labor Organizations, 1936

Organization	Death benefits	Strike benefits	Other benefits
Canadian Association of Railwaymen	$29,500.00		
Canadian Brotherhood of Railway Employees	3,368.12		$1,079.32
Civil Service Association of Alberta	5,812.03		
One Big Union		$640.00	5,589.70
Provincial Federation of Ontario Fire Fighters	22,000.00		
Total	60,680.15	640.00	6,669.02

In addition to the benefits paid by central organizations, the sum of $411,907 was reported disbursed in 1936 by 717 local branches in the Dominion for the different classes of benefits indicated below. This amount is $27,809 above the sum reported paid by 711 local branches in 1935.

Death benefits	$59,679
Unemployed benefits	143,520
Strike benefits	48,391
Sick and accident benefits	100,127
Other benefits	60,190
Total	411,907

The total expenditures for different classes of benefits by the international organizations for 1936 was $20,228,178, but how much of this amount was paid to the Canadian branches is not stated in the report under review.

WHITE-COLLAR WORK UNDER THE W. P. A.

ABOUT 236,000 persons were employed on W. P. A. "white-collar" projects during the latter half of April 1937. Projects of this type became necessary on the adoption of the policy of providing jobs for unemployed persons along the line of their usual occupations. A description of the various kinds of work provided for W. P. A. white-collar workers and figures showing the number given such work are contained in the June 1937 Report on the Progress of The Works Program issued by the Works Progress Administration.

In January 1936 about 12 percent of the total eligible workers on the W. P. A. rolls were white-collar workers. Among them were artists, musicians, actors, writers, physicians, nurses, teachers, salesmen, stenographers, typists, and other office workers. The projects adopted to utilize the skills of these unemployed persons have, in addition to providing a living for them and maintaining their skills, rendered services of public benefit and material worth. The Federal expenditures on these projects have been mainly for labor, less than 7 percent of the total costs of the completed projects at the end of March 1937 being for nonlabor costs. Sponsoring agencies have generally provided housing facilities, equipment, and needed materials, as well as various incidental expenses.

The number of men and women given employment on each type of project during the latter half of April 1937 is shown in the following table.

W. P. A. White-Collar Workers, by Type of Projects and by Sex, Half-Month Ending April 30, 1937

[Subject to revision]

Type of project	Total	Men	Women	Type of project	Total	Men	Women
All projects [1]	235,715	137,901	97,814	Selected types of professional and technical projects	47,902	25,929	21,973
Art	4,704	3,436	1,268	Medical and dental	8,151	3,949	4,202
Music	13,362	10,995	2,367	Nursing	2,727	180	2,547
Theater	11,340	8,195	3,145	Library	15,260	4,891	10,369
Writers'	3,921	2,328	1,593	Museum	2,906	1,359	1,547
Education [2]	44,366	17,536	26,830	Planning	5,259	4,428	831
Recreation	44,531	29,848	14,683	Other [3]	13,599	11,122	2,477
Research and statistical	30,233	20,785	9,448	Clerical	25,629	13,201	12,428
Statistical surveys	18,084	12,129	5,955	Other white collar [3]	9,465	5,489	3,976
Nonstatistical research	12,149	8,656	3,493				
Social and historical research	2,978	1,644	1,334				
Scientific research	2,888	2,178	710				
Other [3]	6,283	4,834	1,449				

[1] Employment on white-collar projects in Hawaii, totaling 262, is included in the grand total, but not distributed by type of project.

[2] Number employed during the entire month of April.

[3] Includes projects classifiable under more than one of the headings above.

Art, Music, Theater, and Writing

In order to employ the talents of artists, musicians, actors, and writers, a cultural program for the four groups was adopted.

In the art program mural painting has been preeminent. Altogether more than 700 murals have been finished and installed in public buildings, and there are long waiting lists for murals in all parts of the country. Thousands of paintings and prints have been shown in W. P. A. exhibitions, or sent to schools, libraries, and public institutions or buildings. Easel paintings sent to hospitals have been found to be of therapeutic value to the patients. Sculpture as related to architecture, in the form of plaques, panels, and figures for use in the construction of public buildings, has been the principal employment of sculptors and kindred artists.

Many of the art-project personnel are employed as teachers in the 30 community art centers which have been established since January 1, 1936 (mostly in the South and West) and also at settlement houses, orphanages, hospitals, children's clubs, and community centers. In New York City about 50,000 adults and children are taught each week. Other workers are employed in making posters, dioramas, lantern slides, etc., for educational purposes. In 25 States, artists are doing research work for an Index of American Design, covering the origin and development of American decorative and applied art.

Under the Federal music program almost 13,400 persons were given employment in the latter part of April 1937. More than 50,000 public programs or performances have been given since October 1935 by W. P. A. symphony and concert orchestras, dance orchestras, military and concert bands, theater orchestras, choral groups, opera companies, and chamber-music ensembles. Teaching of music appreciation has occupied hundreds of other groups. Because of these projects many people who had had almost no opportunity to do so before have been able to hear the world's greatest music. Civic interest in music has been greatly stimulated, and permanent symphony orchestras have been made possible in a number of cities through an awakened interest in music among their citizens.

The theater program furnished employment to over 11,300 unemployed persons in the latter part of April 1937. Through this program the living theater has been brought to a new audience, composed mostly of people in remote rural sections and in city districts where the legitimate theater was unfamiliar to them. From information obtained through questionnaires from 40,000 persons attending W. P. A. dramatic performances, it is estimated that 60 percent of the adults and children in the audiences had never before seen a theatrical performance.

Within a year and a half after the initial performance of the Federal theater program in New York City, 45,000 performances had been

given. Appreciation of the theater has been stimulated, and the interest and financial aid of sponsoring and other bodies have been enlisted, such as recent grants by the Rockefeller Foundation, use of the facilities and equipment of Vassar College for an experiment in retraining stage directors in the newer theater techniques, and action by several States in developing actors and directors for districts without theater facilities. Dramatists of note, including George Bernard Shaw, Eugene O'Neill, and Sinclair Lewis, have given their support by allowing their plays to be produced at lower royalties.

Many marionette shows, vaudeville performances, and circuses have been given at public and semipublic institutions, such as orphanages, children's homes, asylums, hospitals, war veterans' and old people's homes, and State and county prisons, and also at C. C. C. camps. The requests of crippled children, the sick, and the underprivileged of all ages for the entertainment and relaxation afforded by these performances have been so numerous that the different units have not been able to keep up with them.

The Federal writers' program has provided work for unemployed writers, journalists, editors, and research and clerical workers. The majority of these workers have been engaged in the preparation of the first comprehensive American guide, embracing a national guide, 42 State guides, and pamphlets describing recreational areas and tours by land and water; on the staff of the United States Tourist Information Service; in assembling documents relating to city government for a municipal reference library; and in research on particular phases of the social, economic, and cultural development of the country.

Education

In April 1937 over 44,000 men and women were employed on W. P. A. education projects, which were operated through State and local agencies. About 80 percent of these persons were employed as teachers or supervisors, and the others as librarians, research workers, and nurses, dietitians, and cooks. About 2,000,000 persons (including 50,000 nursery children) were enrolled as regular attendants in approximately 140,000 classes. In addition, about 1,000,000 other persons attended parents' meetings, forums, labor assemblies, etc.

During March 1937 there were about 6,000 teachers of literacy classes in which approximately 240,000 persons were enrolled. About 700,000 men and women, it is estimated, have been taught to write intelligibly and to read newspapers with understanding. Such subjects as arithmetic, English, history, civics, economics, public speaking, science, and psychology were being taught to 395,000 other persons. Public-affairs classes had a regular enrollment of 110,000 persons, and 37,000 others attended forums and lectures on public affairs.

These public-affairs courses have been directed toward giving such workers an understanding of the basic facts of economics affecting the worker, as well as the history and background of labor movements in America; their purpose is "to equip the worker better to meet the problems affecting labor in America, through intelligent and informed participation in democratic processes."

Courses in foods and cooking, home management, child care, sewing, and hygiene were being given to over 100,000 women. About 1,800 nursery schools were being conducted, where children from the families of the unemployed and from underprivileged homes were given physical examinations, medical and dental treatment, nourishing lunches, and supervised play and rest periods.

Vocational training is an important part of the educational program, and includes industrial, commercial, building, mechanical, and agricultural instruction, training in salesmanship and retail clerking, restaurant work, domestic service, sewing and tailoring, and in some places native arts and crafts. About 16,000 classes were providing training for over 200,000 men and women in April 1937. That the training has been of practical benefit is shown by reports from 13 States, which indicate that almost 20 percent of the enrollees have secured jobs resulting directly from the training in W. P. A. classes and that 3 percent of the enrollees, on the average, are placed monthly.

Recreation

The W. P. A. recreation program, which seeks to develop opportunities for the constructive use of leisure time through providing leaders in many kinds of recreational activities, employed about 45,000 persons in April 1937. This field, in which fewer than 3,000 persons had full-time employment in 1935, is considered an expanding one, in which at least 80,000 trained workers will be needed when facilities are fully developed.

The W. P. A. recreation program has greatly increased in scope since 1935, and millions of persons are participating in its activities each month. The program includes a great variety of activities, of three general types—cultural, physical, and social. The cultural recreation program, for developing personal aptitudes, includes the organization of choral and instrumental music groups, dramatic art (such as puppetry) and theatrical activities, lectures, forums, and discussion groups. Among the physical-recreation activities is the important one of the supervision and teaching of swimming, as well as games and sports—baseball, basket ball, football, bowling, boxing, tennis, etc.—and playground and gymnasium activities. The social-recreation program includes club work for adults and children, group dancing, organization of outdoor activities, and play centers for preschool children.

Statistical Work, Surveys, and Research

Among the W. P. A. projects for white-collar workers on a Nation-wide basis are a survey of State and local historical records, a survey of Federal archives, preparation of a permanent and accurate record of historic American buildings and ships, and the collection and compilation of data for State planning boards. Projects operated under other Federal bureaus employ W. P. A. white-collar workers on surveys, studies, censuses, etc.

Statistical and research projects of State or local scope furnished employment for over 30,000 W. P. A. workers in April 1937, while other projects of a statistical nature gave work to about 4,000 others. Some of the most important projects were the collection and compilation of data for use in improvement of housing conditions; indexing and modernization of immigration and naturalization records; traffic surveys to reduce accidents; studies to facilitate health campaigns and disease control; surveys of crime and delinquency; and investigation of economic and social problems such as farm tenancy, part-time farming, and cooperatives.

Other White-Collar Projects

Nursing and public-health projects, library and museum projects, and clerical projects also furnish employment for many white-collar workers. The home-nursing service for the needy and unemployed is an important part of the nursing and public-health projects in 37 States, the District of Columbia, and New York City. Prenatal and postnatal care, when requested by physicians, and service in illness are rendered by registered nurses. W. P. A. nurses have been employed in health campaigns, in physical examination of children, and in immunization campaigns against communicable diseases. In many cases such work has become a permanent community activity and financed as such, and in this way many of the nurses have been given permanent employment.

Library projects were undertaken because of the large number of librarians on the W. P. A. rolls, and the need for more and better library facilities. About 15,000 librarians and other workers are employed on projects in 32 States. Approximately 2,500 free libraries have been installed in sections of the country without them, and 2,000 traveling libraries are serving about 500,000 people in the sparsely settled country regions. W. P. A. workers frequently travel on horseback or muleback, and by rowboat to distribute reading matter to mining and isolated mountain regions, and in other rural areas trucks equipped as libraries are used to distribute reading matter to such subcenters as rural schools, crossroads, stores, and private homes, for further distribution.

Museum projects are providing work for persons of many occupations. They clean, restore, and classify exhibits, and work on educational and historical displays.

About 26,000 persons are employed on clerical projects, which are in operation in all but three States. All types of office work are included and the activities include public-health education, social welfare, industrial relations, and taxation. This work has proved of special value to local governments.

PLACEMENT OF UNEMPLOYED WORKERS IN FRANCE [1]

A SYSTEM TO facilitate the absorption in industry of unemployed workers in France, and thus to reduce the cost of unemployment relief, was established by a decree dated September 26, 1937. The decree provided for a qualitative census of unemployment by the regional labor inspectors with the assistance of the unemployment funds. Fifty labor inspectors were to be appointed to examine the unemployment lists with a view to placing unemployed in suitable positions.

Under the terms of this decree refusal by an unemployed person of an offer of employment by the public employment office will result in the denial of further relief unless (*a*) acceptance of the position would necessitate residence in a section where suitable dwellings are not available; (*b*) the employment provides a wage lower than the normal and current wage of the occupation and the region, or does not present a character of normal stability; (*c*) the vacancy was created as a result of a strike; (*d*) the employment does not correspond to the special skill of a skilled worker or employee nor to the ordinary ability of other workers.

If an unemployed worker believes he has been dropped from the unemployment rolls contrary to the terms of the present decree, he may bring action before the administrative committee of the public employment office. If the official of the Ministry of Labor in charge of the unemployment fund concerned does not recognize the validity of the excuse offered by the fund, he may also bring action before the committee. The ruling of the committee on cases submitted to it is final. Consideration may be given by the committee to the situation of the family of the person concerned. If the committee recognizes as valid the excuse offered by an unemployed person who has been dropped from the list, he must be reinstated as of the date of his dismissal and the allowances due him are retroactive to that day, provided his state of unemployment has been regularly registered. On the other hand if he is not upheld by the commission, the unem-

[1] Data are from report of Benjamin M. Hulley, American consul at Paris, dated Oct. 11, 1937; and Journal Officiel (Paris), Oct. 6, 1937.

ployed person is to be dropped from the rolls and any allowance paid him after he was offered employment will not be taken into account in calculating the State subsidy to the fund.

Unemployed persons registered with the unemployment funds who are offered employment at a place more than 25 kilometers (15½ miles) from their homes are to be given financial assistance in making the change of residence, while persons moving to a rural commune are to be given transportation for themselves and their families and their effects, and a supplementary sum is to be sent to them on their arrival. In order to obtain these payments, such persons must present a statement, sworn to before the prefect, certifying that they can find lodgings for themselves and their families and that they can obtain the means of existence in the occupation they wish to follow. The amounts paid in such cases may not exceed the total amount which would have been received as unemployment benefits during a period of 6 months.

Unemployed persons benefiting by the provision facilitating removal to a rural commune may not, within a year, be paid an unemployment allowance by the commune in which they had received assistance.

The decree of May 19, 1935, granting subsidies from the national unemployment funds to the unemployment funds assisting unemployed persons to reestablish themselves in the region in which they were originally located, is repealed.

Child Labor

TREND OF CHILD LABOR, 1927 TO 1936

By ELLA ARVILLA MERRITT, *Industrial Division, Children's Bureau*

THROUGHOUT the past decade the general trend of child labor has followed that of industrial employment except where the influence of legal regulation of the employment of children under Federal or State laws has been powerful enough to bring about a reversal of that trend. The child-labor picture of today is so vitally affected by the far-reaching economic and industrial changes in the decade from 1927 to 1936 that in discussing child labor in 1935 and 1936 it seems desirable also to review the child-labor situation during that decade as it is revealed by the reports to the Children's Bureau of employment certificates issued for children going to work for the first time. Since 1920, reports of these certificates have been sent to the Bureau annually, and in recent years monthly, by an increasing number of States and cities.[1] They constitute practically the only source of Nation-wide information currently available on the number of children entering employment from year to year, because the figures published by the United States Bureau of the Census show only the picture for the decennial years. An annual compilation and evaluation of this information by the Children's Bureau has been made possible by the generous cooperation of State and city officials, which has been stimulated through studies of methods of certificate issuance, through visits to State officials and local issuing officers, and through development of uniform report forms and of sound procedures in obtaining and compiling certificate statistics. At the end of 1936, the Children's Bureau was receiving reports from an area including 58 percent of the total population of the United States.

It must be kept in mind, however, in evaluating the significance of these reports, that they do not show the number of children actually employed at any one time but are indicative only of the stream entering industry each year; that is, they show the number legally entering employment for the first time in occupations for which employment certificates are required. Children who enter occupations for which

[1] At the end of 1936 the reporting area included reports of 14- and 15-year old children from 17 States and the District of Columbia, and from 82 cities of 25,000-50,000 population and 108 cities of 50,000 or more population in 23 other States. Reports of 16- and 17-year old children were being received from 3 States and the District of Columbia, and from 51 cities of 25,000-50,000 population and 82 cities of 50,000 or more population in 11 other States.

in many States such certificates are not required, such as agricultural pursuits,[2] domestic service, and street trades, are of course not included. These reports, moreover, show only the number going to work legally; they give no indication of the number employed without the certificate required by law. Everywhere the value of the employment-certificate reports is dependent upon the careful and consistent attention of issuing officers, many of whom are overburdened with other duties. In spite of these limitations, however, the figures do indicate the trend in the number of children going to work and the extent of their gainful employment, especially in urban areas, and may fairly be considered a Nation-wide index of the employment of young workers.

Number of Children Going to Work

In analyzing these reports it is necessary to discuss separately the 14- and 15-year old workers and the 16- and 17-year old workers, because in many States employment certificates are not required for the older workers and data for this older group, therefore, are not available. Moreover, even in the localities where certificates are now issued to all minors up to 18 years of age, reports are not available for as many consecutive years for the 16- and 17-year old workers as for the younger group, and trends for the two age groups combined cannot be shown for the whole reporting area.

Children 14 and 15 Years Old

During the 10 years beginning with 1927 two major opposing influences—economic and legal—affected child labor. On the one hand there appeared the upswing in business culminating in 1929, the industrial depression of the years that followed, and the improvement of industrial conditions beginning in 1933. Employment of children might have been expected to fluctuate with this industrial trend, as had been the case during the previous 7 years for which the Bureau received reports of children certificated for employment.[3] On the other hand, however, there was the 16-year minimum-age standard of the N. R. A. codes, which went into effect in the summer and fall of 1933, and continued until the National Industrial Recovery Act was declared unconstitutional in May 1935. A legal restriction of this type would of course tend to reduce materially the number of children under 16 employed in gainful occupations.

The reports for 33 representative cities of 100,000 or more population reporting for each year of the decade ending in 1936 showed a slight decrease in the number of children entering employment in

[2] According to the United States Census of 1930, 70 percent of the children under 16 years of age gainfully employed and 34 percent of those 16 and 17 years of age were in agricultural pursuits.

[3] See Child Labor Under the N. R. A. as Shown by Employment Certificates Issued in 1934 (pp. 2, 3). Reprinted by the U. S. Children's Bureau from the Monthly Labor Review (December 1935) of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

1928, followed by an increase in 1929 paralleling the business boom which continued throughout the major part of that year. This rise, as indicated by monthly figures obtained from a sample of the States and cities reporting, occurred very largely in the first half of the year. Many localities reported that, compared with the previous

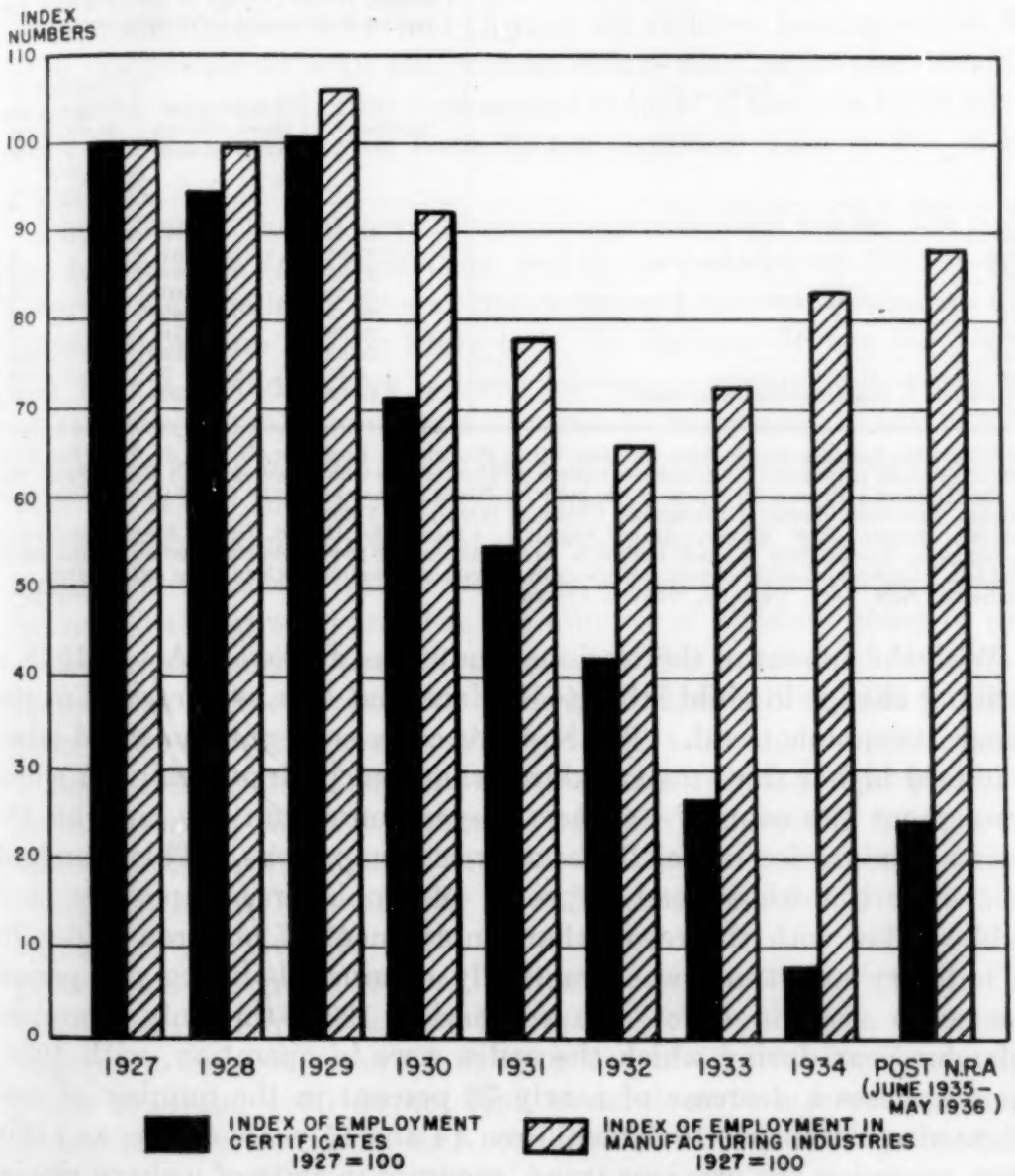

CHART 1.—INDEXES OF EMPLOYMENT CERTIFICATES FOR CHILDREN 14 AND 15 YEARS OF AGE AND OF EMPLOYMENT IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

year, a definite decline had begun by August 1929. This decline continued even more sharply in the depression years 1930, 1931, and 1932. These changes are shown in table 1, which also gives the number of children certificated for employment and the rate of issuance of employment certificates; that is, the number of children certificated per 10,000 population 14 and 15 years of age. In chart 1 the indexes of these numbers are compared with the indexes for general

factory employment,[4] which are taken as reflecting the trend in general business conditions.

TABLE 1.—*Number, Rate, and Percent of Change—Children 14 and 15 Years of Age for Whom Employment Certificates Were Issued, 1927 to 1934 and Post-N. R. A. Year* [1]

Year	Children 14 and 15 years of age for whom first regular employment certificates were issued		
	Number [2]	Number per 10,000 children of these ages	Percent of change in rate, as compared with previous year
1927	55,450	920	
1928	52,351	844	−8.3
1929	55,858	876	+3.8
1930	39,588	605	−30.9
1931	30,428	456	−24.6
1932	23,393	344	−24.6
1933	14,933	222	−35.5
1934	4,737	70	−68.5
Post-N. R. A. year (June 1935–May 1936)	13,579	202	+188.6

[1] This table includes figures from 33 cities with 100,000 or more population (1930 census) reporting to the Children's Bureau each year of the period: Atlanta, Baltimore, Buffalo, Chattanooga, Chicago, Denver, Detroit, Fort Wayne, Grand Rapids, Indianapolis, Kansas City (Kans.), Knoxville, Los Angeles, Louisville, Lowell, Lynn, Minneapolis, Nashville, New York, Oakland, Omaha, Peoria, Providence, Rochester (N. Y.), St. Paul, San Francisco, Somerville (Mass.), South Bend, Springfield (Mass.), Washington (D. C.), Wichita, Wilmington (Del.), and Yonkers.

[2] Figures for Detroit, Grand Rapids, and Providence are for 15-year old children; laws do not permit issuance of certificates for 14-year old children.

With the advent of the National Industrial Recovery Act in 1933, a striking change in child labor took place that was independent of the general economic trend. The N. R. A. codes set a national child-labor standard higher than the standards that had been generally in effect throughout the country—a basic 16-year minimum age, and an 18-year minimum for especially hazardous occupations. This standard met with the widespread approval of employers, employees, and public alike, with the result that employment of children under 16 in industry and trade was practically eliminated during the period the codes were in effect. In comparing 1934, the only complete calendar year during which the codes were in operation, with 1933, there appears a decrease of nearly 70 percent in the number of certificated children per 10,000 children 14 and 15 years of age, and this drop, reversing the previous trend, occurred in spite of a sharp rise in the index of factory employment. But when the codes were invalidated in May 1935, the former tendency for child labor to follow the trend of general factory employment was resumed. Because the first half of the calendar year 1935 covers a period affected by the N. R. A. restrictions and the last half of the year covers a period without these restrictions, the trend for the year as a whole is not representative.

Figures from 10 States, the District of Columbia, and 88 cities in 19 other States, where there was no 16-year minimum-age law and

[4] Factory employment index used is that of U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, adjusted to a 1927 base.

where the minimum-age standard of the State law had not been raised in 1934 or 1935, or prior to May 31, 1936, show that a definite return to the use of child labor began in June 1935, immediately after the invalidation of the N. R. A. codes. According to these figures, during the period June 1, 1935 to May 31, 1936 (the post-N. R. A. year), there occurred an increase of 167 percent (from 7,476 to 19,937) in the total number of 14- and 15-year old children leaving school for work, as compared with the corresponding number in the calendar year 1934. In the 33 cities represented in table 1, the rate for children who were certificated rose from 70 per 10,000 in 1934 to 202 in the post-N. R. A. year.

One effect of the 16-year minimum-age standard set by the codes was to stimulate State legislation, and in the period from 1933 to 1936 progress was made in several States toward the establishment of a 16-year minimum age by State law. In the two States, New York and Rhode Island, where a basic 16-year minimum age went into effect during 1936, there was a decrease of 94 percent in the number of children going to work in the last 6 months of that year as compared with the last 6 months of 1935. However, in the areas where the minimum-age standard was not raised during 1936, that is, where no legislative restriction intervened,[5] the figures for the last half of 1936 continued the upward trend in the number of children going to work shown in the earlier part of the year. The number of children in these areas who left school for work in the last half of 1936 increased from 3,732 to 5,523, or almost 50 percent, as compared with the last 6 months of 1935. This followed the general trend of employment, because during the last 6 months of 1936 the factory employment index was 96.4 as compared with 88.4 in the last 6 months of 1935.[6]

Table 2 shows the number of children certificated for their first regular employment in 1927, 1929, 1932, 1934, and 1936, and the percent of change in 1936 as compared with 1932 and 1934. This table gives a fair picture of the decade 1927 to 1936, because no important changes occurred in 1928 and the figures for the calendar years 1933 and 1935 do not lend themselves to interpretation on a yearly basis, since the N. R. A. codes were in effect during a part, but only a part, of those years.

[5] 12 States, the District of Columbia, and 76 cities in 18 other States.

[6] The U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics index of factory employment, adjusted to a 1927 base.

TABLE 2.—*Number of Employment Certificates Issued for Children 14 and 15 Years of Age in 1927, 1929, 1932, 1934, and 1936, and Percent of Change in 1936* [1]

State and city	Number of first regular employment certificates issued					Percent of change in 1936 as compared with—	
	1927	1929	1932	1934	1936	1932 [2]	1934 [2]
Alabama	700	.....	142	0	74	−48	.....
Arkansas	[3] 190	.....	[3] 46	[3] 228	[3] 79	.....	.....
Little Rock	.....	.....	[3] 31	[3] 46	[3] 59	.....	.....
California: Los Angeles	836	857	271	100	211	−22	+111
Connecticut	6,318	6,527	3,500	2,072	[4] 901	−74	−57
Bridgeport	581	915	382	102	[4] 15	−96	−85
Hartford	629	560	187	90	[4] 53	−72	−41
New Britain	246	253	170	132	[4] 34	−80	−74
New Haven	982	884	398	133	[4] 23	−94	−83
Waterbury	478	374	216	199	[4] 99	−54	−50
Delaware: Wilmington	286	320	116	0	44	−62	.....
District of Columbia	186	279	162	12	91	−44	.....
Georgia	.....	.....	281	2	3	−99	.....
Illinois: Chicago	4,186	3,486	254	1	12	−95	.....
Indiana	847	822	216	19	75	−65	.....
Indianapolis	233	209	65	0	19	−71	.....
Iowa	[3] 765	[3] 862	[3] 82	[3] 21	51	.....	.....
Kansas	124	170	13	3	2	.....	.....
Kentucky	785	798	164	9	268	+63	.....
Louisville	507	482	97	0	215	+122	.....
Louisiana: New Orleans	[5] 1,743	[5] 1,100	[5] 249	[5] 33	[5] 302	+21	.....
Maine	[6] 205	[6] 170	[6] 32	[6] 5	[6] 29	.....	.....
Maryland	3,817	3,815	884	20	538	−39	.....
Baltimore	3,567	3,553	812	16	457	−44	.....
Massachusetts	.....	.....	4,320	1,339	2,397	−45	+79
Boston	.....	2,847	709	161	434	−39	+170
Fall River	.....	1,183	486	68	114	−77	+68
Holyoke	.....	.....	83	29	44	−47	.....
Lawrence	405	441	173	53	149	−14	+181
Lowell	233	467	224	39	51	−77	.....
Lynn	268	333	118	23	35	−70	.....
New Bedford	.....	.....	346	59	242	−30	+310
Springfield	391	427	143	36	69	−52	.....
Worcester	.....	.....	121	28	125	+3	.....
Michigan: Detroit	[6] 687	[6] 1,033	[6] 155	[6] 0	[6] 228	+47	.....
Minnesota	310	253	41	19	48	.....	.....
Missouri:							
Kansas City	178	[3] 338	35	0	67	.....	.....
St. Louis	2,048	[3] 1,730	225	18	86	−62	.....
Springfield	.....	.....	37	18	50	.....	.....
Nebraska: Omaha	117	74	96	86	132	+38	+53
New Hampshire	[3] 761	[3] 1,120	[7] 353	20	151	.....	.....
Manchester	[3] 244	[3] 411	81	8	15	−81	.....
New Jersey	[3] 18,081	[3] 17,385	5,201	1,677	4,889	−6	+192
Atlantic City	.....	.....	62	9	106	+71	.....
Bayonne	.....	.....	100	5	1	−99	.....
Camden	.....	.....	265	47	74	−72	.....
Elizabeth	.....	.....	366	50	137	−63	+174
Hoboken	.....	.....	129	29	146	+13	.....
Jersey City	[3] 1,560	[3] 1 371	[3] 396	215	695	+76	+223
Newark	[7] 2,345	[7] 2,264	781	203	584	−25	+188
Passaic	.....	.....	.....	87	83	.....	−5
Paterson	.....	.....	345	53	264	−23	+398
Trenton	[3] 867	[3] 824	[3] 276	[3] 125	336	+22	+169
Union City	.....	.....	134	0	104	−22	.....
New York	.....	54,897	26,865	7,766	[8] 9,035	−67	+16
Albany	.....	361	171	51	[8] 44	−74	−14
Binghamton	.....	288	144	0	[8] 7	−95	.....
Buffalo	2,599	2,783	1,445	603	[8] 203	−86	−66
Mt. Vernon	.....	.....	80	17	[8] 14	−83	.....
New York	35,717	35,934	17,896	3,463	[8] 5,884	−67	+70
Rochester	1,604	1,476	380	197	[8] 73	−81	−63
Schenectady	.....	.....	470	148	79	[8] 27	−82	−66
Syracuse	375	514	144	61	[8] 124	−14	+103
Troy	.....	.....	200	64	13	[8] 32	−50	.....
Utica	.....	.....	671	364	165	[8] 143	−61	−13
Yonkers	490	413	157	61	[8] 41	−74	−33
North Carolina	.....	.....	6,410	1,038	0	592	−43	.....
Oregon	352	.....	241	8	8	−97	.....
Portland	.....	265	210	0	1	−100	.....
Pennsylvania:							
Philadelphia	9,932	10,455	2,411	33	[4] 152	−94	.....
Pittsburgh	1,381	1,429	277	[9] 297	[4] [9] 118	−57	−60
Reading	.....	.....	223	10	[4] 0	−100	.....

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Number of Employment Certificates Issued for Children 14 and 15 Years of Age in 1927, 1929, 1932, 1934, and 1936, and Percent of Change in 1936* [1]—Continued

State and city	Number of first regular employment certificates issued					Percent of change in 1936 as compared with—	
	1927	1929	1932	1934	1936	1932 [2]	1934 [2]
Pennsylvania—Continued.							
Scranton	697	757	346	19	[4] 50	−86	
Wilkes-Barre	924			137	[4] 58		−58
York			84	73	[4] 136	+62	+86
Rhode Island:							
Pawtucket			[6] 125	[6] 33	[10] 56	−55	
Providence	[6] 1,563	[6] 1,943	[6] 723	[6] 52	[10] 237	−67	+356
Tennessee		1,526	295	95	[11] 232	−21	+144
Knoxville	161	172	47	5	50		
Memphis		238	53	0	44	−17	
Vermont	49	77	19	1	0		
Washington: Seattle			91	22	32	−65	
Wisconsin	2,599	1,656	253	[12] 3	[12] 1	−100	
Milwaukee	1,736	861	127	[12] 3	[12] 0	−100	

[1] This table includes all States reporting and all cities with 50,000 or more population (1930 census) reporting 50 or more certificates in 1927, 1929, 1932, 1934, or 1936.

[2] Percent not shown where number of children was less than 50 in 1932 or 1934 nor where figures were not available or not comparable.

[3] Includes certificates issued for work outside school hours and during vacation.

[4] 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in Connecticut in May 1935 and in Pennsylvania in September 1935.

[5] Includes certificates issued for work during vacation.

[6] Practically all of these were 15-year old children; minimum age for certification under the law is 15, but certificates were issued to a few 14-year old children under special circumstances.

[7] Includes certificates issued for work outside school hours.

[8] 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in September 1936.

[9] Includes children receiving certificates for domestic service in own or other home not included in 1927, 1929, or 1932.

[10] 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in July 1936.

[11] Includes reissued certificates.

[12] 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in September 1933.

In 1936 in all the States and cities reporting to the Bureau, 21,910 children 14 and 15 years of age were certificated for their first regular employment.[7] In localities reporting for both 1932 and 1936 [8] approximately 50,000 children were reported as certificated in the former year as compared with approximately 21,500 in the latter year. The most important factor in this drop is the fact that since 1932 six States in the reporting area have established by State law a basic 16-year minimum age for employment, as follows: In 1933 Wisconsin and Utah; in 1935 Connecticut and Pennsylvania; and in 1936 Rhode Island and New York. The number of certificates issued in these areas in 1932 and 1936 is shown in the following tabular statement:

	Year 1932	*Year 1936*
Wisconsin State	253	1
Salt Lake City, Utah	20	0
Connecticut State	3,500	901
Pennsylvania (11 cities only)	3,523	548
Rhode Island (2 cities only)	848	293
New York State	26,865	9,035
Total	35,009	10,778

[7] This includes reports from 18 States, from 78 cities of 50,000 or more population and 50 cities of 25,000–50,000 population in 21 other States. In addition, certificates were issued for 417 children in 1 State and 2 cities in 2 other States where it was not possible to know whether the children were actually leaving school, there being no provision for a special kind of certificate for work during vacation and outside school hours.

[8] 17 States, the District of Columbia, and 69 cities of 50,000 or more population in 16 other States.

The certificates granted in 1936, in the areas where the 16-year minimum age has been established by State law, were issued either during the part of the year before the law went into effect or for employment not covered by these laws. In Massachusetts the drop between 1932 and 1936 which was reported not only for the State as a whole but also in all but one of the cities of 50,000 or more population, occurred chiefly in manufacturing and mechanical industries. It seems probable that a ruling of the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries in 1935 [9] establishing a 16-year minimum age in textile factories, was the controlling factor in this reduction. In other States where the State minimum age remained the same there was considerable variation from 1932 to 1936. In some localities fewer certificates were issued in 1936 than in 1932, and in some a considerable increase occurred.

The increase in the number of certificates issued in 1936 over those issued in 1934 is indicative of the rise in employment of 14- and 15-year old children after the N. R. A. code restrictions were removed. The only significant decreases in this period are those in Connecticut and in some of the cities in New York and Pennsylvania, where 16-year minimum-age laws went into effect in 1935 or 1936.

Analysis of the rates of issuance of employment certificates for children 14 and 15 years of age in the individual cities reporting shows wide variations among the States, and even among cities in the same State, which are significant also of differences in demands for child labor, in effective administration of certificate laws, in efforts toward prolonging school training for young people, and in other social means of control exercised by individual communities.

Minors 16 and 17 Years of Age

Information received currently by the Children's Bureau as to the number of young workers of 16 and 17 years of age certificated for employment is not so comprehensive as that received for children 14 and 15 years old, because 16- and 17-year old minors are not so generally required to obtain certificates before going to work. In the States and cities reporting in 1936,[10] more than 96,000 first regular certificates were issued for boys and girls of this age group.[11] Figures for 18 cities reporting each year during the decade from 1927 to 1936 (see table 3) show that the rates of issuance of employment certificates for children 16 and 17 years of age increased in 1929 and decreased in 1930, 1931, and 1932, as did the rates for the younger group.

[9] A 16-year minimum age for work in textile factories was established in 1935 by a stipulation contained in the regulations promulgated by the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries suspending the night-work provision for women in textile manufacturing.

[10] 4 States, the District of Columbia, and 68 cities of 50,000 or more population and 33 cities of 25,000 to 50,000 population in 10 other States.

[11] In some cities, where school attendance is not required beyond 16 years of age, it is not known whether these minors have left school or are employed only outside school hours and during vacation.

But in 1933 and 1934, when, notwithstanding a continuing improvement in business conditions, the national minimum of the N. R. A. codes was restricting the employment of children under 16, these

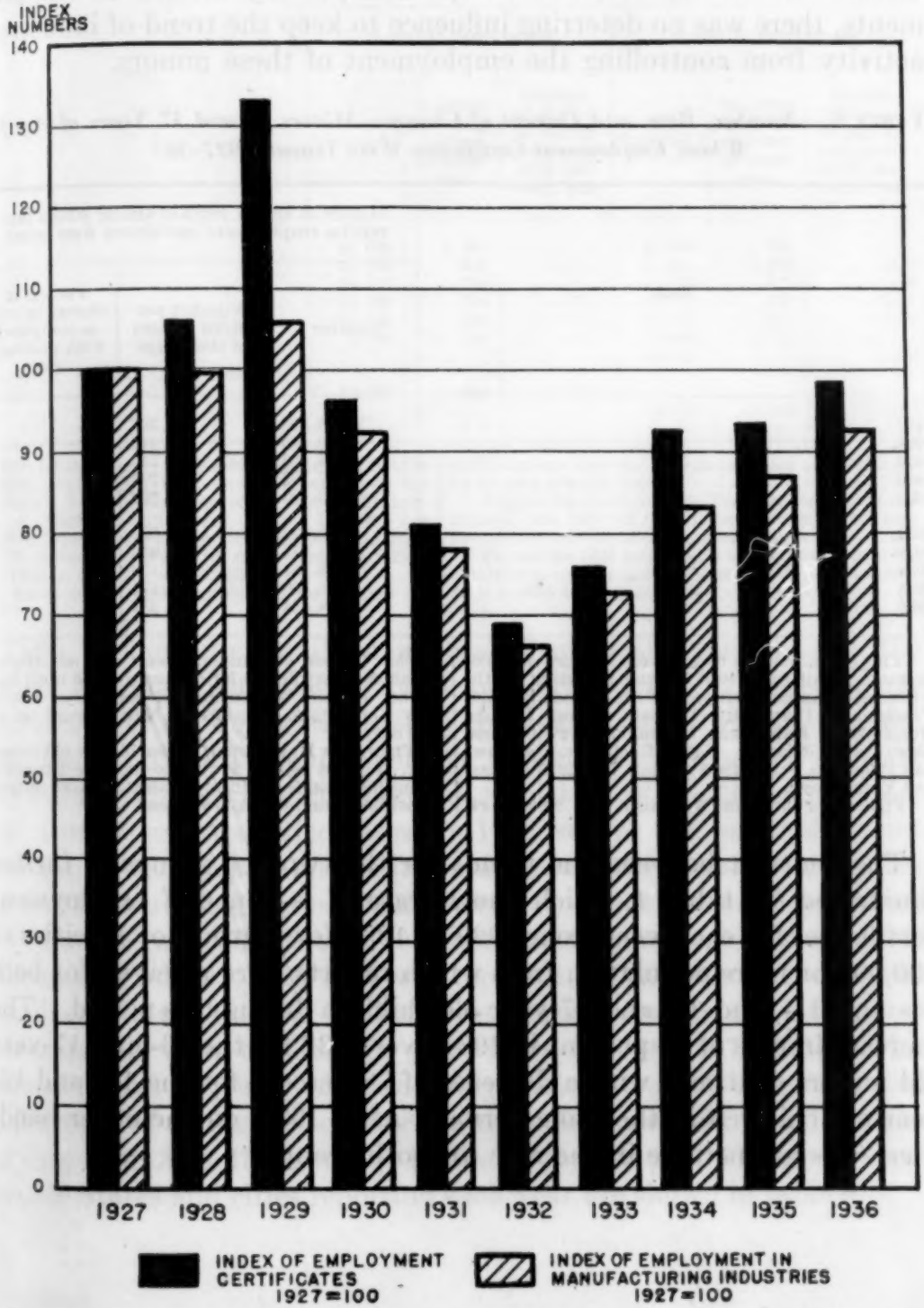

CHART 2.—INDEXES OF EMPLOYMENT CERTIFICATES FOR CHILDREN 16 AND 17 YEARS OF AGE AND OF EMPLOYMENT IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

older boys and girls were going to work in increasing numbers, and this increase continued, though to a less marked degree, in 1935 and 1936. In chart 2, the changes in indexes of these numbers are compared with

the changes in the index numbers of factory employment for each year, and a very close correspondence is seen between the two. As the minimum age provisions of the N. R. A. codes did not affect children of 16 and 17 years except in especially hazardous employments, there was no deterring influence to keep the trend of industrial activity from controlling the employment of these minors.

TABLE 3.—*Number, Rate, and Percent of Change—Minors 16 and 17 Years of Age for Whom Employment Certificates Were Issued, 1927–36* [1]

Year	Minors 16 and 17 years of age for whom first regular employment certificates were issued		
	Number [2]	Number per 10,000 minors of these ages	Percent of change in rate as compared with previous year
1927	28,893	1,362	
1928	30,585	1,412	+3.7
1929	38,453	1,740	+23.2
1930	27,793	1,234	−29.1
1931	23,403	1,022	−17.2
1932	19,972	872	−14.7
1933	21,977	952	+9.2
1934	26,754	1,159	+21.7
1935	27,100	1,174	+1.3
1936	[3] 28,454	1,232	+4.9

[1] This table includes figures from 18 cities of 50,000 or more population (1930 census) reporting to the Children's Bureau each year of the period: Buffalo, Cincinnati, Columbus, Dayton, Grand Rapids, Hamtramck, Kalamazoo, Milwaukee, New Orleans, New York, Niagara Falls, Rochester, Saginaw, San Francisco, Springfield (Ohio), Toledo, Yonkers, and Youngstown.

[2] Figures for cities in Wisconsin and New York are for 16-year old minors; laws did not require issuance of certificates for minors over 16 until September 1935 in Wisconsin and September 1936 in New York State. Figures for New Orleans are for girls only.

[3] Figures for Hamtramck are for 16-year old minors only. Figures for San Francisco and the District of Columbia include certificates issued for work outside school hours and during vacation.

The contrast between the trends for the two age groups is further illustrated by table 4, which shows rate of issuance of employment certificates for each year from 1929 to 1936 for a group of 16 cities of 100,000 or more population from which reports were received for both 14- and 15-, and 16- and 17-year old children during this period. The increase in rate of 24 percent in 1934 over 1932 for the 16- and 17-year old minors contrasts with a decrease of 78 percent for the 14- and 15-year old children in the same period. After 1934, on the other hand, there was an increase in the rate for both groups.

TABLE 4.—*Number, Rate, and Percent of Change—Children 14 and 15, 16 and 17 Years of Age for Whom Employment Certificates Were Issued, 1929–36* [1]

Year	Children for whom first regular employment certificates were issued					
	14 and 15 years of age			16 and 17 years of age		
	Number [2]	Number per 10,000 children of these ages	Percent of change in rate as compared with previous year	Number [3]	Number per 10,000 children of these ages	Percent of change in rate as compared with previous year
1929	48,038	1,267		41,984	1,704	
1930	35,748	920	−27.4	31,671	1,258	−26.2
1931	28,713	726	−21.1	27,532	1,072	−14.8
1932	22,309	554	−23.7	23,771	925	−13.7
1933	14,613	366	−33.9	26,553	1,023	+10.6
1934	4,956	124	−66.1	29,666	1,143	+11.7
1935 [4]				30,521	1,176	+2.9
Post-N. R. A. year (June 1935–May 1936)	13,019	326	+162.9			
1936 [4]				34,719	1,338	+13.8

[1] This table includes figures from 16 cities of 100,000 or more population (1930 census) reporting to the Children's Bureau each year of the period: Albany, Boston, Buffalo, Fall River, Grand Rapids, Los Angeles, New York, Oakland, Rochester, San Diego, San Francisco, Somerville (Mass.), Syracuse, Utica, Washington (D. C.), and Yonkers.

[2] Figures for Grand Rapids are for 15-year old children; law does not permit issuance of certificates for 14-year old children.

[3] Figures for cities in New York are for 16-year old minors; law did not require issuance of certificates for minors over 16 until September 1936.

[4] Figures for 1935 and 1936 for the 14- and 15-year old children are given only for the post-N. R. A. year, June 1, 1935, to May 31, 1936.

Table 5 shows in detail for all States and cities reporting to the Bureau the actual number of boys and girls 16 and 17 years of age receiving first regular certificates in the years 1927, 1929, 1932, 1934, and 1936, and the percent of change in 1936 as compared with 1932 and 1934. This gives a comprehensive picture of the 10-year period. The almost universal decreases in 1932 reflect the unemployment situation in that year, and the upward trend in 1934 and 1936 follows the line of increasing industrial activity. In the 3 States, the District of Columbia, and 55 cities in 10 other States from which comparable information for 1935 and 1936 was received, an increase of 23 percent was shown in the number of these certificates issued in the latter year as compared with the former year (from 61,718 to 75,724). This increase, however, was very unevenly distributed, 23 cities showing an increase of 50 percent or more, while a few cities showed decreases varying from 3 to 27 percent. Increases for the past 5 years in comparable States and cities reporting each year are shown in table 6.

TABLE 5.—*Number of Employment Certificates Issued for Children 16 and 17 Years of Age in 1927, 1929, 1932, 1934, and 1936, and Percent of Change in 1936* [1]

State and city	Number of first regular employment certificates issued					Percent of change in 1936 as compared with—	
	1927	1929	1932	1934	1936	1932 [2]	1934 [2]
Alabama	[3] 1,655	.....	[3] 663	[3] 463	[3] 1,575	+138	+240
Birmingham	[3] 338	.....	[3] 14	[3] 13	[3] 92	.....	.....
Mobile	[3] 64	.....	[3] 23	[3] 10	[3] 44	.....	.....
Montgomery	[3] 63	.....	[3] 13	[3] 21	[3] 62	.....	.....
California:							
Berkeley	.....	.....	182	93	101	−45	+9
Fresno	.....	.....	299	142	183	−39	+29
Glendale	.....	.....	.....	.....	91	.....	.....
Long Beach	.....	.....	64	62	149	+133	+140
Los Angeles	.....	5,311	2,275	2,074	2,739	+20	+32
Oakland	.....	1,528	565	290	643	+14	+122
Sacramento	.....	318	143	213	289	+102	+36
San Diego	486	320	382	206	322	−16	+56
San Francisco	2,160	2,037	869	890	[4] 1,075	+24	+21
San Jose	.....	.....	171	198	265	+55	+34
District of Columbia	.....	1,848	1,175	1,531	[4] 2,395	+104	+56
Louisiana: New Orleans	[5] 384	[5] 364	[5] 208	[5] 47	[5] 163	−22	.....
Massachusetts:							
Boston	.....	5,173	2,212	1,841	3,744	+69	+103
Brockton	.....	.....	.....	278	321	.....	+15
Cambridge	.....	.....	.....	541	866	.....	+60
Fall River	.....	630	481	873	1,472	+206	+69
Holyoke	.....	.....	93	165	306	+229	+85
Lawrence	665	.....	843	407	773	−8	+90
Lowell	.....	.....	1,253	659	1,315	+5	+100
Lynn	.....	3,398	254	197	345	+36	+75
Malden	.....	.....	206	184	[4] 334	+62	+82
Medford	.....	.....	158	220	[4] 325	+106	+48
New Bedford	.....	.....	357	705	1,334	+274	+89
Newton	.....	.....	64	81	104	+63	+28
Quincy	.....	.....	.....	550	431	.....	−22
Somerville	.....	975	400	502	891	+123	+77
Springfield	.....	.....	1,014	724	1,158	+14	+60
Worcester	.....	.....	.....	959	1,723	.....	+80
Michigan:							
Dearborn	.....	.....	75	[7] 145	[8] 13	.....	.....
Detroit	8,711	.....	2,074	4,113	6,361	+207	+55
Flint	.....	.....	153	326	595	+289	+83
Grand Rapids	688	985	176	215	549	+212	+155
Hamtramck	319	578	238	456	[6] 96	−60	−79
Highland Park	.....	361	74	155	[4] 207	+180	+34
Jackson	.....	.....	41	68	50	.....	.....
Kalamazoo	175	228	33	16	41	.....	.....
Lansing	.....	.....	.....	135	171	.....	+27
Pontiac	.....	.....	116	33	82	−29	.....
Saginaw	689	675	37	0	12	.....	.....
New York	.....	[3] 29,602	[3] 17,893	[3] 24,584	[9] 25,719	+44	+5
Albany	.....	[3] 309	[3] 187	[3] 265	[9] 284	+52	+7
Binghamton	.....	[3] 269	[3] 117	[3] 176	[9] 153	+31	−13
Buffalo	[3] 1,475	[3] 1,877	[3] 1,155	[3] 1,638	[9] 2,105	+82	+29
Mount Vernon	.....	.....	[3] 85	[3] 89	[9] 95	+12	+7
New Rochelle	.....	[3] 91	[3] 70	[3] 71	[9] 64	−9	−10
New York	[3] 12,226	[3] 18,841	[3] 12,765	[3] 18,100	[9] 17,084	+34	−6
Niagara Falls	[3] 274	[3] 217	[3] 47	[3] 66	[9] 135	.....	+105
Rochester	[3] 960	[3] 1,220	[3] 573	[3] 628	[9] 683	+19	+9
Schenectady	.....	[3] 429	[3] 125	[3] 173	[9] 179	+43	+4
Syracuse	[3] 225	[3] 361	[3] 148	[3] 233	[9] 357	+141	+53
Troy	.....	[3] 174	[3] 47	[3] 81	[9] 125	.....	+54
Utica	.....	[3] 277	[3] 173	[3] 142	[9] [4] 128	−26	−10
Yonkers	[3] 323	[3] 292	[3] 235	[3] 238	[9] 248	+6	+4
Ohio:							
Akron	1,133	1,036	425	757	733	+72	−3
Canton	.....	.....	174	306	443	+155	+45
Cincinnati	2,955	3,114	1,183	1,190	1,578	+33	+33
Cleveland	.....	8,748	3,631	5,605	[4] 6,521	+80	+16
Cleveland Heights	.....	.....	13	31	24	.....	.....
Columbus	991	1,200	536	514	1,017	+90	+98
Dayton	638	807	306	485	648	+112	+34
Hamilton	.....	.....	41	57	74	.....	+30
Lakewood	.....	.....	65	107	101	+55	−6
Springfield	410	431	143	159	330	+131	+108
Toledo	1,438	1,889	549	1,184	1,222	+123	+3
Youngstown	779	1,026	582	726	816	+40	+12

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 5.—*Number of Employment Certificates Issued for Children 16 and 17 Years of Age in 1927, 1929, 1932, 1934, and 1936, and Percent of Change in 1936* [1]—Contd.

State and city	Number of first regular employment certificates issued					Percent of change in 1936 as compared with—	
	1927	1929	1932	1934	1936	1932	1934
Oklahoma:							
Oklahoma City	------	------	3	91	135	------	+48
Tulsa	------	------	65	63	151	+132	+140
Oregon	1,687	------	315	237	478	+52	+102
Portland	------	1,307	224	112	257	+15	+129
Pennsylvania:							
Altoona	------	------	------	------	[10] 69	------	------
Bethlehem	------	------	------	------	[10] 433	------	------
Chester	------	------	------	------	[10] 248	------	------
Erie	------	------	------	------	[10] 49	------	------
Harrisburg	------	------	------	------	[10] 48	------	------
Johnstown	------	------	------	------	[10] 49	------	------
Lancaster	------	------	------	------	[10] 92	------	------
McKeesport	------	------	------	------	[10] 16	------	------
Philadelphia	------	------	------	------	[10] 4,870	------	------
Pittsburgh	------	------	------	------	[10] 780	------	------
Reading	------	------	------	------	[10] 1,043	------	------
Scranton	------	------	------	------	[10] 313	------	------
Wilkes-Barre	------	------	------	------	[10] 164	------	------
York	------	------	------	------	[10] 110	------	------
Tennessee: Knoxville	------	------	76	50	40	−47	−20
Utah: Salt Lake City	311	488	156	89	122	−22	+37
Washington: Seattle	------	------	525	281	380	−28	+35
Wisconsin	[3] 4,656	[3] 5,740	[3] 692	[3] 469	[11] 1,817	+163	+287
Milwaukee	[3] 2,009	[3] 2,672	[3] 337	[3] 202	[11] 652	+93	+223

[1] This table includes all States reporting and all cities with 50,000 or more population (1930 census) reporting in 1927, 1929, 1932, 1934, or 1936.

[2] Percent not shown where number of minors was less than 50 in 1932 or 1934, nor where figures were not available or not comparable.

[3] Includes only 16-year old minors; law does not require certificates for 17-year old minors.

[4] Includes certificates issued for work outside school hours and during vacation.

[5] Number of girls for whom regular certificates were issued; law does not require certificates for boys of these ages.

[6] Includes only 16-year old minors.

[7] Figures from 2 districts only; no report received from third district.

[8] Figures from 1 district only; no reports received from 2 other districts.

[9] Includes only 16-year old minors; law changed Sept. 1, 1936, to include certification of 17-year old minors. Certificates issued Sept. 1, 1936–Dec. 31, 1936 for 17-year old minors as follows: Albany, 71; Binghamton, 24; Buffalo, 149; Mount Vernon, 24; New Rochelle, 6; New York City, 3,468; Niagara Falls, 4; Rochester, 156; Schenectady, 91; Syracuse, 51; Troy, 37; Utica, 22; Yonkers, 59; New York State, 5,111.

[10] Pennsylvania law changed in September 1935 to include certification of 16- and 17-year old minors.

[11] Includes only 16-year old minors; law changed Sept. 1, 1935, to include certification of 17-year old minors. Certificates issued to 17-year old minors during 1936, as follows: Wisconsin, 2,506; Milwaukee, 805.

TABLE 6.—*Minors 16 and 17 Years of Age for Whom Certificates Were Issued and Percent of Increase as Compared With Previous Year, 1932–36* [1]

Year	Minors 16 and 17 years of age for whom first regular employment certificates were issued	
	Number	Percent of increase as compared with previous year
1932	44,399	------
1933	51,247	+15.4
1934	54,920	+7.2
1935	59,073	+7.6
1936	71,999	+21.9

[1] This table includes all States reporting and all cities of 50,000 or more population (1930 census) reporting to the Children's Bureau each year of the period: 3 States, the District of Columbia, and 48 cities in 9 other States.

Sex of Children Going to Work

In the States and cities that reported in each of the 5 years from 1927 to 1931, the proportion of boys in each year exceeded that of girls by 10 to 14 percent. In 1930, 55 percent of the children certificated were boys, a sex distribution practically the same as that shown by the 1930 census for this age group in nonagricultural occupations. In 1931, however, there was a considerable increase in the proportion of girls, and the certificate figures showed practically the same number of girls as of boys entering employment.[12]

In the following 5 years the proportion of girls 14 and 15 years of age entering employment increased up to 1936, a fact which, as far as the employment of young children is concerned, reflected a shift from manufacturing industries—in which the younger employees are mostly boys—to other types of work in which more girls than boys are employed (table 7).

TABLE 7.—*Sex Distribution of Children 14 and 15 Years of Age for Whom First Regular Employment Certificates Were Issued, 1932–36* [1]

Year	Number			Percent		
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
1932	43,415	20,571	22,844	100.0	47.4	52.6
1933 [2]	30,226	12,681	17,545	100.0	42.0	58.0
1934	10,739	1,864	8,875	100.0	17.4	82.6
1935 [3]	17,502	7,169	10,333	100.0	41.0	59.0
1936 [4]	18,710	9,800	8,910	100.0	52.4	47.6

[1] This table includes all States reporting and all cities of 50,000 or more population (1930 census) reporting data on sex each year of the period: 12 States, the District of Columbia, and 82 cities in 18 other States. Figures for the State of Maine and the cities in Michigan and Rhode Island are for 15-year old children; laws do not permit issuance of certificates for 14-year old children.

[2] 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in Wisconsin in September 1933.

[3] 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in Pennsylvania in September 1935.

[4] 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in Rhode Island in July 1936 and in New York in September 1936.

Among 16- and 17-year old workers, the number of boys exceeded the number of girls by 10 percent in 1927, but the proportion of girls increased from year to year until in 1931 the number going to work was approximately the same for both sexes. In the years from 1932 to 1936 the figures for the States and cities reporting for all 5 years showed a slight rise in the proportion of girls in 1932, and a decrease in 1933 and 1934. Since that time there has been little change in the proportion (table 8).

[12] See Trend of Child Labor in the United States, 1920–31. Reprinted by the U. S. Children's Bureau from the Monthly Labor Review (December 1932) of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 8.—*Sex Distribution of Minors 16 and 17 Years of Age for Whom First Regular Employment Certificates Were Issued, 1932–36* [1]

Year	Number [2]			Percent		
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
1932	39,769	18,926	20,843	100.0	47.6	52.4
1933	45,892	23,178	22,714	100.0	50.5	49.5
1934	47,983	25,651	22,332	100.0	53.5	46.5
1935	51,589	27,608	23,981	100.0	53.5	46.5
1936	67,963	36,650	31,313	100.0	53.9	46.1

[1] This table includes all States reporting and all cities of 50,000 or more population (1930 census) reporting data on sex each year of the period: 2 States, the District of Columbia, and 58 cities in 9 other States.

[2] Figures for the years 1932–35 for the State of Wisconsin and the cities in New York are for 16-year old minors only; the laws did not require the issuance of certificates for minors over 16 until September 1935 in Wisconsin and September 1936 in New York. Figures for 1936 for Wisconsin include both 16- and 17-year old minors and for the cities in New York include 16-year old minors only.

Occupations Entered by Children Going to Work

Children 14 and 15 years old

The changes in occupations entered by children 14 and 15 years of age going to work for the first time reflect changes both in employment opportunities and in legislative restrictions. The 1930 census reports showed that the number of children under 16 in manufacturing and mechanical occupations had decreased during the decade 1920 to 1929 by a much larger percentage than the proportion of children in the trade and service occupations, and this tendency is becoming more and more evident in employment-certificate figures. During the period 1929–36 (table 9) the proportion of children who went to work in manufacturing establishments decreased from nearly 50 percent in 1929 (49.4) to less than 20 percent (17.7) in 1936; there were slight increases in the percent of children entering mercantile occupations (from 16.9 to 21.9 percent) and messenger and delivery work (from 14.0 to 19.5 percent). The great increase, however, counterbalancing the decrease in manufacturing and mechanical work, occurred in the domestic- and personal-service group (from 9.8 to 32.2 percent).

TABLE 9.—*Occupations Entered by Children 14 and 15 Years of Age for Whom First Regular Employment Certificates Were Issued 1929–36* [1]

Year	Children 14 and 15 years of age for whom certificates were issued						
	Number	Percent entering specified occupations					
		All occupations	Manufacturing and mechanical occupations	Mercantile occupations	Domestic and personal service	Messenger and delivery work	Other occupations
1929	31,901	100.0	49.4	16.9	9.8	14.0	9.9
1930	18,718	100.0	43.1	18.9	15.8	14.2	8.0
1931	12,443	100.0	41.8	18.6	20.4	11.5	7.7
1932	7,645	100.0	36.2	18.0	26.1	10.9	8.8
1933 [2]	5,578	100.0	45.9	12.5	27.4	8.1	6.1
1934	1,475	100.0	1.2	8.5	82.4	2.7	5.2
1935 [3]	2,586	100.0	12.4	16.2	51.2	10.4	9.8
1936 [4]	3,529	100.0	17.7	21.9	32.2	19.5	8.7

[1] This table includes all States reporting and all cities of 50,000 or more population (1930 census) reporting occupation to the Children's Bureau each year of the period: 7 States, the District of Columbia, and 33 cities in 13 other States. Figures for cities in Michigan and Rhode Island are for 15-year old children; laws do not permit issuance of certificates for 14-year old children.

[2] 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in Wisconsin in September 1933.

[3] 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in Pennsylvania in September 1935.

[4] 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in Rhode Island in July 1936 and in New York in September 1936.

Employment in manufacturing, and to a lesser extent in trade, decreased during the depression years because of lack of jobs, and almost disappeared while the N. R. A. codes were in effect. A comparison of occupations entered by children in 1934, and in the 12-month period immediately following the invalidation of the N. R. A. codes, for cities and States reporting occupations in each of these years, showed that only 6 percent entered manufacturing and mercantile occupations in 1934 as compared with 30 percent in the post-N. R. A. year. On the other hand, the proportion entering the domestic- and personal-service occupations (chiefly girls) decreased from 85 percent in 1934 to 45 percent in the post-N. R. A. year (table 10).

TABLE 10.—*Occupations Entered by Children 14 and 15 Years of Age for Whom First Regular Employment Certificates Were Issued, 1934 and Post-N. R. A. Year* [1]

Occupation	Number of children [2]		Percentage distribution	
	1934	Post-N. R. A. year (June 1935–May 1936)	1934	Post-N. R. A. year (June 1935–May 1936)
Total for whom occupation was reported	2,678	6,580	100.0	100.0
Manufacturing and mechanical	23	899	0.8	13.7
Mercantile	133	1,091	5.0	16.6
Office	15	112	0.6	1.7
Outside messenger and delivery	67	1,003	2.5	15.2
Domestic and personal service	2,279	2,972	85.1	45.2
Own home	1,356	1,322	50.6	20.1
Other private household	869	1,322	32.5	20.1
Other domestic and personal service	54	328	2.0	5.0
Other	161	503	6.0	7.6

[1] This table includes only the States and cities which did not have 16-year minimum-age laws between January 1934 and May 1936 and which had no changes in minimum-age laws during the period.

[2] Figures for the State of Maine and the cities in Michigan and Rhode Island are for 15-year old children; laws do not permit issuance of certificates for 14-year old children.

The occupational trend shown in the figures for the year 1936 is approximately the same as that for the post-N. R. A. year. About one-eighth of the children were in manufacturing and mechanical occupations; about one-fifth in mercantile and office work; one-fifth in outside-messenger work; and nearly two-fifths in domestic and personal service. About one-half of this latter group were certificated to work in their own homes, but a large proportion were certificated for work in other private households, or in hotels or restaurants, in laundries, or in other types of personal service (table 11).

TABLE 11.—*Occupations Entered by Children 14 and 15 Years of Age for Whom First Regular Employment Certificates Were Issued in 1936*

Occupation	Number of children	Percentage distribution
Total for whom occupation was reported	15,618	100.0
Manufacturing and mechanical	1,913	12.2
Mercantile	2,468	15.8
Office	560	3.6
Outside messenger and delivery	3,310	21.2
Domestic and personal service	5,914	37.9
Own home	3,318	21.3
Other private household	1,864	11.9
Other domestic and personal service	649	4.2
Personal service, type not reported	83	0.5
Other	[1] 1,453	9.3

[1] Includes 901 certificates most of which were issued for domestic and personal service.

Minors 16 and 17 Years of Age

Between 1929 and 1936 employment of minors 16 and 17 years of age in manufacturing and mechanical occupations decreased, as in the 14- and 15-year old group, though not as sharply for the older as for the younger group, and employment in domestic service and personal-service occupations increased. A reversal of this trend however began in 1935 when the percent in manufacturing and mechanical occupations increased from 14 to 21, and the percent in the domestic and personal occupations decreased from 41 to 35. The proportion in mercantile occupations and messenger and delivery work remained fairly constant (table 12). In the States and cities for which occupations entered by boys and girls 16 and 17 years of age were reported for both 1935 and 1936 (table 13), there was an increase from 26 to 30 percent in the proportion in manufacturing and mechanical occupations and a corresponding decrease in the proportion entering domestic-service and personal-service occupations. A larger proportion of the latter group than of the 14- and 15-year old minors went to work in private households other than their own, or in hotels or restaurants, or in other types of personal service. The proportion in mercantile, office, and outside-messenger and delivery work remained almost the same in the 2 years.

TABLE 12.—*Occupations Entered by Minors 16 and 17 Years of Age for Whom First Regular Employment Certificates Were Issued, 1929–36* [1]

Year	Minors 16 and 17 years of age for whom certificates were issued						
	Number	Percent entering specified occupation					
		All occupations	Manufacturing and mechanical occupations	Mercantile occupations	Domestic and personal service	Messenger and delivery work	Other occupations
1929	26,047	100.0	40.1	22.2	14.4	9.1	14.2
1930	17,224	100.0	28.1	24.7	24.2	9.9	13.1
1931	14,521	100.0	22.4	25.5	31.8	8.3	12.0
1932	10,491	100.0	17.1	23.3	37.3	9.1	13.2
1933	10,277	100.0	18.4	21.9	36.2	11.1	12.4
1934	11,657	100.0	14.3	20.3	42.8	11.8	10.8
1935	12,247	100.0	13.6	21.8	41.0	13.5	10.1
1936	20,058	100.0	20.5	20.4	35.0	12.7	11.4

[1] This table includes all States reporting and all cities of 50,000 or more population (1930 census) reporting occupation to the Children's Bureau each year of the period: The State of Wisconsin, the District of Columbia, 5 cities in California, 1 city in Massachusetts, 2 cities in Michigan, 2 cities in New York, and 5 cities in Ohio. Figures for the years from 1929 to 1935 for the State of Wisconsin and the cities in New York are for 16-year old minors only, the laws did not require the issuance of certificates for minors over 16 until September 1935 in Wisconsin and September 1936 in New York. Figures for 1936 for Wisconsin include both 16- and 17-year old minors and for the cities in New York include 16-year old minors only.

TABLE 13.—*Occupations Entered by Minors 16 and 17 Years of Age for Whom First Regular Employment Certificates Were Issued, 1935 and 1936*

Occupation	Minors for whom certificates were issued			
	Number		Percentage distribution	
	1935 [1]	1936 [2]	1935	1936
Total for whom occupation was reported	34,020	49,720	100.0	100.0
Manufacturing and mechanical	8,719	14,742	25.6	29.7
Mercantile	7,228	10,471	21.3	21.1
Office	865	1,215	2.5	2.4
Outside messenger and delivery	3,945	6,323	11.6	12.7
Domestic and personal service	11,409	14,340	33.5	28.8
Own home	4,817	4,852	14.2	9.7
Other private household	4,659	5,804	13.6	11.7
Other domestic and personal service	1,933	3,684	5.7	7.4
Other	1,854	2,629	5.5	5.3

[1] Figures for the States of Alabama and Wisconsin and the cities in Michigan and New York are for 16-year old minors only; law did not require issuance of certificates for minors over 16.

[2] Figures for the State of Alabama and the cities in Michigan and New York are for 16-year old minors only; law did not require issuance of certificates for minors over 16. The Wisconsin law changed in September 1935 to include certification of 17-year old minors and the figures for 1936 for Wisconsin are for both 16- and 17-year old minors.

Schooling of Children Going to Work

Seventy-two percent of the 14- and 15-year old children going to work in 1936 had completed the eighth or a higher grade. As a result not only of advances in State child-labor and school-attendance laws, but also of an increased social impetus toward prolonging school attendance for children, there has been during the past 10 years a

gradual increase in the percentage of the children who had at least an eighth-grade education before leaving school for work. This increase, in comparable localities, was from 58 percent in 1927 to 75 percent in 1936. Where the standards in 1936 were still comparatively low—that is, in States with a 14-year minimum age and an educational requirement less than completion of the eighth grade—a much smaller proportion (only 51 percent) of the children going to work had finished the elementary school.

A higher percentage of the 16- and 17-year old group than of the 14- and 15-year old group had completed the eighth or a higher grade (84 percent and 72 percent, respectively).

Evidence of Age

It is axiomatic in good child-labor-law enforcement that reliable evidence of age must be required for the issuance of work certificates, in order to prevent the employment of children under the legal age. Administrators of labor laws consider a birth certificate as the best evidence of age, and a baptismal record as the next best. Most of the other types of evidence are much less reliable. In the enforcement of the Federal child-labor laws, experience showed that it was necessary to scrutinize all types of documentary evidence carefully, and to accept school records and parents' affidavits only as a last resort, and then only as corroboration of the physician's certificate of age. During the past 10 years there has been an increase in the percentage of children 14 and 15 years of age for whom birth certificates were accepted as evidence of age for employment certificates. In 1927 only 57 percent of the children in the States and cities reporting obtained their employment certificates on the basis of birth certificates, while in 1936, 67 percent presented birth certificates. In 7 States, the District of Columbia, and 40 cities in 7 other States at least 90 percent of the certificates were issued on either birth or baptismal certificates, while on the other hand, in 1 State and 27 cities in 12 other States the school record was the predominating type of evidence.

An analysis of the type of evidence accepted as proof of age for 16- and 17-year old minors showed a somewhat smaller predominance of birth certificates and a larger proportion of school records than for 14- and 15-year old minors. Sixty-one percent of the certificates issued for the older group in 1936 were granted on the basis of birth certificates and 15 percent on the basis of school records.

Outlook and Needs in Field of Child Labor

Although significant advances in State legislation have been made in the past few years, aimed at preventing the industrial employment of children under 16 years of age, there are still 38 States permitting

children of 14 or 15 years to leave school for work. Experience under the national minimum-age standards of the N. R. A. codes showed that industry could easily replace these young people with older workers. More and more the general public is coming to the view that it is socially wasteful to allow children of 14 and 15 years to cut short their school training to take up jobs that in general are poorly paid and of little training value, and more and more forward-looking employers are coming to see the advantages of employing boys and girls of 16 and over rather than those of 14 and 15 years. Nevertheless the employment of children under 16 during the past decade has fluctuated with general business conditions whenever legal restriction did not intervene to change the trend. The increases in the number of children under 16 years leaving school for work both in the last half of 1935 after the N. R. A. codes (with their 16-year minimum) were declared unconstitutional, and in 1936, show that further legislative restriction is necessary if we are to insure to children of 14 and 15 years the protection their best interest requires. Moreover, the increase during the same period in employment of the older group of boys and girls—those 16 and 17 years old—emphasizes the fact that further attention should be given both to raising the legislative standards for workers in this age group and to obtaining efficient administration of such legislation. It is important in all States, and especially in States where the minimum age for employment has been raised to 16 years, that the full protection of the employment-certificate system be given to boys and girls of 16 and 17 years, not only to prevent employment under the legal age but also to aid in the enforcement of other laws affecting them, such as those relating to hours of work and to hazardous employments. The development of such a system, moreover, furnishes to a responsible public agency the means of keeping in touch with the young worker during the first years of his industrial life and providing him with vocational guidance and counseling, assistance in finding work, and health supervision.

A strong point of the employment-certificate system, as it has related to children under 16, has been the possibility of dovetailing its administration with that of the compulsory school-attendance laws, because in most States children have been required to attend school up to the age of 16 years unless they have been certificated for employment. The development of a well-administered certificate system applying to children up to the age of 18, supplemented by school-attendance laws requiring children under this age to attend school if not at work, is an outstanding need in legislation.

Labor Involved in Industrial Production

LABOR REQUIREMENTS IN THE PRODUCTION OF CLAY PRODUCTS

By BERNARD H. TOPKIS, *Bureau of Labor Statistics* [1]

HOW MUCH labor is created if a thousand bricks are used in the construction of a project? A ton of structural tile? A hundred square feet of wall tile or ceramic floor tile? The answers to pertinent questions such as these form a basis for estimating the effect of public or private expenditures for construction upon employment. Labor at the site of construction is readily determined from the pay-roll records of contractors. It is more difficult, however, to determine the labor involved away from the site, in the mines or quarries, in brickyards, and in transportation. To measure the effects of orders for construction materials on private employment, the Bureau of Labor Statistics has been conducting a series of man-hour studies on basic materials used on construction projects. The present study, the fifth in the series,[2] analyzes the labor requirements in the production and distribution of clay products.

Summary of Findings

On the basis of the data collected it is estimated that a mile of sewerage system using 1,056 tons of 36-inch glazed clay sewer pipe required over 24,000 man-hours of employment in production and transportation to the site of construction. Every hundred square feet of wall tile involved 26.7 man-hours of labor away from the site and every hundred square feet of ceramic floor tile, 22.0 man-hours.

The 1,232 bricks, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches, used to construct a hundred square feet of 8-inch brick wall created more than 17.9 man-hours of labor away from the site when common brick was used, and 25.7 man-hours when the wall was faced with machine-molded face brick. One hundred square feet of wall constructed of 4-inch brick facing and 4-inch tile "back-up" required 616 machine-molded face bricks and 100 structural tiles. The labor required to produce the brick and tile and to deliver the products to the construction site amounted to 22.8 man-hours.

[1] Prepared under the direction of Herman B. Byer, Chief of the Division of Construction and Public Employment.

[2] For previous articles in this series see Monthly Labor Review, May 1935, p. 1155 (steel manufacture); March 1936, p. 564 (cement production); May 1937, p. 1136 (lumber production); October 1937, p. 846 (rail transportation of construction materials).

Every 616 face bricks and 190 board feet of lumber required in a hundred square feet of wood wall with brick facing created 12.9 man-hours in the brick industry and 6.2 man-hours in the lumber industry, respectively, a total of 19.1 man-hours.

Importance of Industry

The principal clay products used in construction are common brick, face brick, paving brick, structural tile, sewer pipe, flue lining, wall coping, wall tile, and floor tile. These products are used extensively in the construction of walls, piers, partitions, fire-proof floors, conduits, houses, and other similar projects. Approximately 60 percent of the value of all clay products other than pottery and nonclay refractories, produced in the United States during 1935 was comprised of these products.

The clay-products industry is an important consumer of fuel and power. In 1929 the manufacture of clay products consumed 4 percent of all bituminous coal used by manufacturing industries in the United States and was exceeded only by the iron and steel, cement, coke, and gas industries.

Scope and Method of Bureau's Study

The production of clay products is essentially a local industry. In the determination of the labor involved in the production and distribution of clay products, the pay rolls and labor-cost records of 68 representative manufacturers of common brick, face brick, paving brick, structural tile, sewer pipe, flue lining, wall coping, wall tile, and ceramic floor tile were studied. The sample covered 6 percent of all establishments engaged in the production of clay products other than pottery and nonclay refractories in 1935, and 17 percent of the annual production.

In determining the total amount of labor involved in the production of clay products, the production records for the individual establishments were examined first. From these records the quantities of the more important raw materials used in the produciton of a unit of each product were determined.

Data on the labor required to produce the clay used per unit of product were taken from the pay-roll records of establishments extracting clay at the site of manufacture and also of those extraction establishments operating independently of the production of the finished product. The man-hours required to produce 1 ton of clay were determined by dividing the number of hours worked in extracting the clay by the number of tons produced.[3] Then the man-hours

[3] The application of this method gives to every ton in the total tonnage of a material the same labor requirements. The method used, in other words, is not that of the marginal concept of labor productivity which implies that it is possible to measure the additional units of labor that are required to produce each additional ton of a specified material.

required to produce 1 ton of clay were multiplied by the number of tons required per unit of product.

The labor involved in the production of coal used for burning clay products was computed from data of the United States Bureau of Mines.

The labor involved in producing the power used by plants generating their own power was based on data from representative manufacturers of clay products showing the amount of coal required to produce the power in manufacturing a unit of product. The labor required to mine 1 ton of coal was derived from data of the United States Bureau of Mines. Then the labor required to mine sufficient coal to generate the power required to manufacture each unit of product was determined by multiplying the quantity of coal required per unit by the labor required in mining 1 ton of coal. The man-hours required in producing the necessary steam and in attending generators were added to this figure, giving the total man-hours necessary to generate the power required per unit of manufacture in those establishments producing their own power. The labor involved in producing the power used by plants which purchased power was estimated on the basis of 2.4 man-hours for fuel required to generate 1,000 kilowatt hours of purchased electricity.[4] The man-hours involved in the power used in producing clay products was an average of the labor required in plants producing their own power and in plants purchasing electricity.

The estimate of the labor involved in the production of sand was based on published data of the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the labor required to produce the lumber used in bracing the clay products for shipping was taken from a study of the labor requirements in that industry.[5]

No estimate was made of the labor involved in the production of other materials used in relatively small quantities in the production of clay products, i. e., explosives, gasoline, lubricating oil, molds, straw, chemicals, rails, rail ties, and miscellaneous supplies.

The labor involved in transporting the principal raw materials to the site of manufacture was determined from a study of the Bureau of Labor Statistics on the labor required to transport construction materials.

The man-hours required to manufacture all clay products included in the study are based on the yearly labor requirements, including shut-down periods. For the labor required to produce the various clay products, the man-hours per unit of manufacture for plants in each of the States included in the sample were weighted by the 1935

[4] For a discussion of the method of computing the man-hours required to produce electricity see "Labor Requirements in Cement Production," Monthly Labor Review, March 1936, p. 564.

[5] See "Labor Requirements in Lumber Production," Monthly Labor Review, May 1937, p. 1136.

production figures, published in the United States Census of Manufactures, in order to reduce any bias inherent in the sample.

The statistics on common brick were based on a sample of 37 establishments producing 320,000,000 common brick in 1935 or 18 percent of the total production of the United States for that year.

Approximately 120,000,000 face bricks or 21 percent of the production of face brick in the United States in 1935 were produced in the 26 plants included in the study.

The five establishments manufacturing paving brick included in the sample, produced approximately 13,000,000 such bricks, or 18 percent of the total production in 1935.

The man-hours required to produce structural tile were based on the records of 25 establishments producing 200,000 tons of structural tile or 22 percent of the total 1935 production.

The labor requirements for glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping—three products invariably produced by the same establishments—were based on the records of seven producers. These establishments manufactured 120,000 tons or 15 percent of the total production of these products in 1935.

The sample included five manufacturers of wall tile producing 20,000 tons or 44 percent of the 1935 production, and the four manufacturers of ceramic floor tile produced 3,000 tons or 31 percent of the total production.

The labor required in selling and in administration per unit of manufacture was derived by dividing the number of man-hours worked in selling and administration in each establishment in 1935 by the total number of units sold by each establishment.

Clay products are delivered by truck at the site of construction or are shipped by rail or boat to a terminal and then trucked to the construction site. The percentage of clay products transported by each of the three methods was determined from the sales records of the various establishments. An analysis of the pay-roll records of the establishments indicated the man-hours of labor involved in shipping a unit of clay ware to the job by truck. The labor involved in shipping by rail was estimated on the basis of a transportation study made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.[6] The man-hours for transportation by boat were determined by a survey of shipping-labor requirements. The man-hours required for unloading the clay ware at the terminal, loading on a truck, and hauling to the construction site and unloading were determined by a survey of trucking operations. To obtain the transportation man-hour requirements per unit of product, the labor involved in each method of transportation was weighted by the proportion of the total product which was hauled by each method.

[6] "Labor Requirements in Rail Transportation of Construction Materials," Monthly Labor Review, October 1937, p. 846.

Production Processes and Methods

Clay products are manufactured by molding prepared clay into desired shapes. The excessive moisture is then dried out, and the clay is hardened by burning in kilns. After the products have been burned sufficiently and cooled, they are withdrawn from the kiln, sorted, and either loaded on freight cars or trucks and shipped, or stored, for future delivery. Although the same general process of manufacture is used for all products, specialized machinery and techniques are involved in the production of each product. Common brick, face brick, paving brick, and structural tile are made by forcing clay through a die or mold. Sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping, on the other hand, are formed on a steam press, and wall tile and floor tile are pressed by special machines.

Common brick, face brick, paving brick, and structural tile.—The clay or shale used in the manufacture of brick or structural tile is usually dug by steam shovels or quarried and brought from the clay pit to the plant in cars. At the plant the clay is shredded and screened. If shale is used, it is ground to a fine powder. The screened clay or shale is conveyed to the pug mill where it is thoroughly mixed.

Three methods of manufacture are in use throughout the industry. The quantity of water added to temper the clay varies with the method used. In the stiff-mud process just enough water is added to make the clay pliable. The soft-mud process requires more moisture, water being added until the clay is of the consistency of dough. The third method, less frequently used, is the dry process—a method by which the dry pulverized clay is pressed into shape without the addition of moisture.

Where the stiff-mud process is used, the tempered clay is forced through a die to form a continuous ribbon. The ribbon of stiff mud is passed on a continuous belt against a sharp edge which cuts it at regular intervals. The "green" ware is then loaded by hand onto a carrier and wheeled into a drying room. Common brick and face brick are manufactured in the same yard by the stiff-mud process. This is the only process by which paving brick and structural tile are manufactured.

If the soft-mud process is used, the soft clay is not passed through a die, but is deposited in steel molds. The molds are placed on pallets and loaded onto carriers preparatory to drying.

In the dry process, the clay is pressed into shape by hydraulic machines. As no water is used, no drying is necessary, and the "green" bricks are taken immediately from the molding machine to the kiln.

"Green" clay products made by the stiff- and soft-mud processes in the plants studied were dried from 1 to 3 days in the drying room.[7] Then the ware was removed to the kiln and set for burning. In setting the ware a space is left between the pieces to allow the heat to circulate. This insures even burning. The kiln is a large furnace or heating chamber or series of chambers used for the purpose of drying, hardening, and burning clay products. The shape, method of operation, and system of heating differ with the type of kiln. Some kilns are permanent beehive structures (periodic kilns) and are emptied and refilled after each burning. Scove kilns, on the other hand, are temporary structures of beehive shape and are built each time the clay ware is set. When scove kilns are used, the products are not withdrawn until shipped. Other kilns are permanent tunnel-like structures constructed with the heat-producing unit approximately midway of the length. The clay ware is placed on cars and moved slowly through the entire length of the tunnel, being dried, heated, and cooled in one operation. Three to six days are required for burning in periodic and scove kilns, the length of time depending on the nature of the clay and the desired hardness of the finished ware. The kiln is cooled and the ware is loaded on carriers and drawn from the kiln either to a place of storage or to the freight car or truck for shipment. In most instances these operations are performed by hand labor, although in some establishments machinery has been introduced.

Sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping.—Clay or shale with the property of drying with even shrinkage and vitrifying without distortion is used for manufacturing sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping. Frequently several kinds of clay or shale are mixed to obtain the proper physical characteristics and broken pipe is also introduced to give body to the mixture. The mixture is ground to a powder and screened. Water is added to the fine dust until a stiff mud is formed. This mud is fed to a press and steam pressure is applied to mold the clay into the desired shapes. The "green" ware is inspected, reamed, placed on a board, and moved by truck to the drying room. In the drying room the products are tested, checked, examined for blisters, and smoothed. Then they are placed in the kiln and burned from 4 to 14 days, depending on the size of the products and the climatic conditions. Salt is introduced during the burning process to give a glaze to the products. After burning, the kiln is cooled and the vitrified ware is removed; cooling usually takes as long as the burning operation. The ware is then graded and removed to the storage yard. When the clay products are loaded for shipping, rough lumber is used to brace them and prevent breakage.

Wall tile.—Wall tile is made of a mixture of white clay, flint, and feldspar which, when burned hard enough, will resist any ordinary

[7] In several establishments "green" clay ware was dried in yards and not subjected to a mechanical drying process.

scratching or abrasion and at the same time remain porous. The pulverized clays used are stored in bins, each of which holds a different kind of clay. In the manufacture of wall tile many different clays are blended, ground, and mixed with steam. This operation reduces the clay to a liquid state known as "slip." The slip is filtered and the clay in cake form is ground to a fine powder. This powder is fed to a machine which presses it into various sizes of wall tile. The press is usually operated mechanically, although in some instances a hand press is used. The molded pieces of tile are inspected and placed in small clay containers. The "saggers," as these clay containers are termed, are transferred to the kiln. If a periodic kiln is used the saggers are set in the kiln and burned for 6 days. Usually, however, a tunnel-type kiln is used for burning wall tile. Approximately 120 saggers are placed on cars which move slowly from one end of the kiln to the other. After removing the burned tile, or "biscuits" from the saggers and after inspection, a glazing liquid is applied. Then the biscuits are placed in the saggers and returned to the kiln for an additional burning. In recent years a new process has been introduced and is used by some manufacturers. In this method the glazing application is applied to the green tile and one burning operation is eliminated. The glazed tile is cooled, removed, inspected, packed in boxes, and taken to a stockroom until shipped by rail or truck.

Ceramic floor tile.—In the manufacture of ceramic floor tile the clay is prepared and pressed, much the same as for wall tile. Floor tile, however, are burned only once, but to a greater degree of vitrification than wall tile. Different colors are obtained by blending clays in varying proportions. The green ware is placed in saggers and burned, usually in a tunnel-type kiln although the periodic kiln is sometimes used. The burned tile is removed and inspected. Occasionally ceramic floor tile is packed in bulk for shipping, but more frequently the small pieces of tile are assembled either in plain or solid colors or in patterns and paper is pasted over the tiles to insure ease in laying. The pasted sheets of ceramic floor tile are packed in boxes and either stored or shipped immediately.

Raw-Material Production

The principal raw materials consumed in the production of clay products are clay, fuel, and power. Sand, lumber, salt, gasoline, lubricating oil, and chemicals are also utilized in various operations involved in the processes of production.

Clay and shale.—Clay and shale used in the manufacture of common brick are widely distributed in nature and are usually of low grade. Generally they are extracted from open pits, but sometimes they are mined.

Clay and shale are earthy materials having the property of plasticity when wet. They can be molded into virtually any desired shape and will retain this shape when dried. If heated to red heat or higher temperatures, clay and shale become hard and rocklike. In most cases they become red on burning. When burned hard enough the clay mixture will resist ordinary scratching or abrasion but will remain porous.

Clay used for face brick should burn with uniform color and be free from warping and splitting; soluble salts should not be present in the clay. Paving brick is usually made from impure shale. For structural tile the clays and shales used should have sufficient plasticity to flow smoothly through the die used in forming them. Sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping are manufactured from a mixture of clays; and the clays used must have plasticity, body, ability to withstand heat, and the quality of drying with even shrinkage. Wall and floor tile are made of a mixture of white burning clays, flint, and feldspar.

It was found in the Bureau's study that common brick and face brick whether machine-molded or molded by hand required 6,000 pounds of clay per thousand brick. The labor required in the extraction of this quantity of clay amounted to 0.69 man-hour per thousand common bricks, and 0.91 and 0.90 man-hour, respectively, per thousand machine-molded and hand-molded face bricks. Since the clay used in common brick is more widely distributed and can be of a lower grade than those utilized for the other products, less labor is required in the extraction process. Twelve thousand pounds of clay were required to produce one thousand paving bricks. Only 0.92 man-hour was involved in extracting the impure shale used in a thousand paving bricks. In producing the clay used in the manufacture of a ton of structural tile 0.58 man-hour was required; for a hundred square feet of ceramic floor tile, 0.26 man-hour; for a hundred square feet of wall tile, 0.38 man-hour; and for a ton of glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping, 1.01 man-hours.

The labor required to produce the quantities of clay or shale used in the manufacture of various clay products is shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Man-Hours Required to Produce Clay Used in Manufacture of Clay Products*

Product	Unit	Quantity (in pounds)	Number of man-hours required
Common brick, standard, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches, 4½ to 5½ pounds.[1]	1,000	6,000	0.69
Machine-molded face brick, standard, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches [1]	1,000	6,000	.91
Hand-molded face brick, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches [1]	1,000	6,000	.90
Paving brick, standard, 8¼ x 3½ x 4 inches, 10 pounds [1]	1,000	12,000	.92
Structural tile [1]	1 ton	2,400	.58
Ceramic floor tile, assembled and pasted	100 square feet	390	.26
Wall tile, glazed or enameled	do	520	.38
Glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping	1 ton	2,800	1.01

[1] Clays for these products are usually extracted at the site of manufacture. The man-hours include transportation labor involved in moving the clay from the pit or quarry to the machine house.

Coal.—Coal is used in the manufacture of clay products for burning the ware to hardness. Fuel oil, gas, or wood are also used extensively as a substitute for coal in certain sections of the country. Since no reliable data are available, however, on man-hours of labor involved in the production of these fuels, the present study is based entirely on the labor involved in coal production.[8] Coal for burning clay products must be high in volatile matter, produce a flame long enough to penetrate the kiln, and insure uniform burning. The coal should be as free as possible from impurities tending to discolor the clay. Data published by the United States Bureau of Mines show that in 1935 the output of bituminous coal averaged 4.5 net tons per man per day. Soft-coal miners worked on the average 7.0 hours per day. The output per man-hour was 0.6 ton. To mine a ton of bituminous coal 1.7 man-hours were required.

On this basis the production of the coal used in the manufacture of clay products required 0.7 man-hour for a thousand common or face bricks, 2.3 man-hours for a thousand paving bricks, 0.4 man-hour per ton of structural tile, 0.3 man-hour per hundred square feet of ceramic floor tile, 0.5 man-hour per hundred square feet of wall tile, and 0.9 man-hour for a ton of glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping.

Table 2 shows the man-hours required to extract the coal required in burning clay products.

TABLE 2.—*Man-Hours Required to Produce Coal Used in Manufacture of Clay Products*

Product	Unit	Quantity (in pounds)	Number of man-hours required
Common brick, standard, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches, 4½ to 5½ pounds	1,000	800	0.7
Machine-molded face brick, standard, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches	1,000	800	.7
Hand-molded face brick, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches	1,000	800	.7
Paving brick, standard, 8 x 3½ x 4 inches, 10 pounds	1,000	2,750	2.3
Structural tile	1 ton	475	.4
Ceramic floor tile, assembled and pasted	100 square feet	300	.3
Wall tile, glazed or enameled	do	600	.5
Glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping	1 ton	1,000	.9

Power.—The manufacture of clay products requires power to turn the machinery and to run the conveyors. Gas or oil is used by some plants for generating electricity. Since, however, no statistics are available on the labor required to produce these materials, the man-hours required to produce coal are considered to be the man-hours involved in the fuel consumed in the generation of power. Some establishments produce their own power; others purchase it. In plants generating their own power, the waste heat is used for drying the ware and since it is impossible to prorate the man-hours between

[8] Gas is the only fuel used in the manufacture of wall tile and ceramic floor tile. The man-hours indicated for fuel are computed on the basis of the quantity of coal required to produce the producers' gas used.

the production of power and the manufacturing process, the labor has been charged to the production of power. Almost two-fifths of the common brick, face brick, and structural tile produced by the plants included in the sample was made with purchased power. Purchased electricity is estimated to require 2.4 man-hours per 1,000 kilowatt-hours as determined by a previous study of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the man-hours required in cement manufacture. The man-hours required to generate electricity for these products are shown as an average of the labor required in plants producing their own power and in plants purchasing power. Paving brick, glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, wall coping, wall tile, and ceramic floor tile are produced by power generated in the clay-products plant.

The labor required to produce the power used in manufacture was 0.5 man-hour per thousand for common brick and for face brick, 0.7 man-hour per thousand paving bricks, 0.4 man-hour per ton of structural tile or per hundred square feet of ceramic floor tile, 0.5 man-hour per hundred square feet of wall tile, and 0.8 man-hour per ton of glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping.

In table 3 the kilowatt hours of electricity required to produce clay products and the number of man-hours involved in the production of power are shown, by type of clay product produced.

TABLE 3.—*Man-Hours Required to Produce Power Used in Manufacture of Clay Products*

Product	Unit	Quantity (in kilowatt hours)	Number of man-hours required
Common brick, standard, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches, 4½ to 5½ pounds.	1,000	25	0.5
Machine-molded face brick, standard, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches	1,000	25	.5
Hand-molded face brick, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches	1,000	20	.5
Paving brick, standard, 8 x 3½ x 4 inches, 10 pounds	1,000	50	.7
Structural tile	1 ton	12	.4
Ceramic floor tile, assembled and pasted	100 square feet	22	.4
Wall tile, glazed or enameled	do	34	.5
Glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping	1 ton	28	.8

Sand.—Sand is frequently mixed with clay in the manufacture of brick, to supply additional antishrinking qualities. It is also used in molding, as an aid in shaping the brick and in placing the clay ware in the kilns to prevent the products from sticking together when burned. To produce a ton of sand, 0.8 man-hour is required.[9]

The labor involved in producing the small quantities of sand required in the manufacture of common brick, face brick, paving brick, and structural tile was in all instances 0.1 man-hour or less per thousand brick or per ton of structural tile. Sand was not used in the production of ceramic floor tile, wall tile, or glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping.

[9] See "Indirect Labor Requirements in Construction of Houses by the T. V. A.," Monthly Labor Review, June 1937, pp. 1407–1419.

Lumber.—When clay products are shipped by rail, the load is usually braced with lumber to prevent breakage in transit. With the exception of that used for sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping, the quantity of lumber required for bracing is insignificant. On the average 17 tons of sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping are loaded on a freight car, and approximately 550 board feet of rough lumber are required for bracing. Based on a previous study of the labor requirements in the production of lumber and lumber products made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, which showed that 20.2 man-hours were required to produce a thousand board feet of lumber, 0.6 man-hour was required to produce the 32 board feet of lumber required to brace 1 ton of glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping for shipment.

Transportation of Raw Material

In estimating the labor involved in transporting to the site of manufacture, the raw materials used in producing clay products, statistics published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics were used. These records show that 1.12 man-hours were required to transport 1 net ton of clay used in the manufacture of glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping, and 1.41 man-hours for the clay used for wall and ceramic floor tile manufacture. Since common and face brick, paving brick, and structural tile are manufactured at the site of the clay deposit, the clay used for manufacture is not transported by public carriers, and any labor, therefore, involved in transportation was considered part of the man-hours required to produce clay. The labor time required for transporting bituminous coal was 1.53 man-hours per net ton; for sand, 0.30 man-hour per ton; and for lumber, 3.76 man-hours per ton. The man-hours involved in transporting the raw material to the factory were estimated by applying these figures to the quantities of raw materials used.

The number of man-hours involved in the transportation of the raw materials to the clay-products factory varied considerably for the various products, depending largely upon the quantities of raw materials required and the length of haul. A thousand common bricks or face bricks required 0.6 man-hour for the transportation of the raw materials (table 4); paving bricks, 2.1 man-hours per thousand; structural tile, 0.4 man-hour per ton; ceramic floor tile, 0.5 man-hour per hundred square feet; wall tile, 0.9 man-hour per hundred square feet; and sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping, 2.5 man-hours per ton.

TABLE 4.—*Man-Hours Required To Transport Raw Materials To Clay-Products Factory*

Product	Unit	Number of man-hours required
Common brick, standard, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches, 4½ to 5½ pounds	1,000	[1] 0.6
Machine-molded face brick, standard, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches	1,000	1.6
Hand-molded face brick, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches	1,000	1.6
Paving brick, standard, 8½ x 3½ x 4 inches, 10 pounds	1,000	[1] 2.1
Structural tile	1 ton	1.4
Ceramic floor tile, assembled and pasted	100 square feet	.5
Wall tile, glazed or enameled	do	.9
Glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping	1 ton	2.5

[1] These figures do not include any allowance for the transportation of clay. These products are manufactured at the site of the clay deposit and the clay is not transported by public carriers. For these products the transportation man-hours for clay are treated as part of the clay production man-hours.

Manufacturing

Inasmuch as it is not economical to operate clay-products yards at less than full daily capacity, a decrease in the demand for clay products usually results in a complete shut-down of operations rather than a reduction in daily output. In plants having more than one producing unit, it is sometimes feasible, however, to operate at partial daily capacity. Due to difficulties in obtaining clay, some producers are forced to shut down in the winter months even during periods of increased demand, but during shut-downs the work of such employees as superintendents, clerks, yardmen, and watchmen continues. This labor required during shut-downs is included in the total labor required in the manufacture of clay products.

Machine house.—The man-hours required in this department include the labor required in preparing the clay, shaping, and handling the "green" ware. Machine-house operations [10] required 2.1 man-hours for the manufacture of a thousand common bricks and 2.2 man-hours for a thousand machine-molded face bricks. When face brick was molded by hand 10.8 man-hours per thousand bricks were required for preparing and shaping the clay and for handling the green ware. The manufacturing processes for machine- and hand-molded face brick are virtually the same, the only difference being in the molding. Labor involved in this department per thousand paving bricks amounted to 2.2 man-hours; for structural tile, 0.8 man-hour per ton; for ceramic floor tile, 5.9 man-hours per hundred square feet of tile; for wall tile, 5.2 man-hours per hundred square feet; and for glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping, 4.0 man-hours per ton.

Setting.—The man-hours required in the setting department include the work performed in taking the dried products from the drying room to the kiln and placing the ware in the kiln for burning. If scove kilns are used, the labor involved in placing the temporary walls is included under this department. In some brickyards mechanical

[10] In several establishments "green" clay ware was dried in yards and was not subjected to a mechanical drying process.

devices are used to place the green ware in the kiln. Setting required 1.3 man-hours per thousand common bricks, 1.5 man-hours each per thousand machine-molded and hand-molded face bricks, 1.2 man-hours per thousand paving bricks, 0.5 man-hour per ton of structural tile, and 1.2 man-hours per ton of glazed sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping. Most of the ceramic floor tile and wall tile is burned in tunnel kilns, and setting operations, therefore, are included in the drawing, sorting, and loading department.

Burning.—If coal is used for fuel, the work involved in removing the coal from the freight car, hauling to the kiln, attending the fireboxes, and removing the ashes is the labor required in burning the clay ware to hardness. The same steps are involved if wood is used for fuel. When oil or gas are used for fuel, attending the fire and installing temporary fuel lines are the only operations required. Clay-products yards which use scove kilns and burn oil or gas require labor for installing temporary fuel lines. During the actual burning of the products, attendants are required to see that the desired temperature is maintained in the kiln. One man-hour of labor was required in the burning of a thousand common bricks. Face brick, on the other hand, required 1.7 man-hours per thousand bricks. The marked difference in the labor requirements for burning face brick, as compared with common brick, resulted from the use of coal for fuel in most of the face-brick yards.

The burning of a thousand paving bricks required 2.7 man-hours; structural tile, 0.5 man-hour per ton; ceramic floor tile, 2.9 man-hours per hundred square feet; wall tile, 3.5 man-hours per hundred square feet; and glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping, 1.4 man-hours per ton.

Drawing, sorting, and loading.—Labor is involved in drawing the burned products from the kiln, sorting the ware, and carrying the products either to the stockyard for future loading or loading the products immediately, if they were previously sold. Sometimes when temporary kilns are used, the ware is drawn by mechanical cranes. If periodic kilns are used the clay products are removed from the kiln as soon as they have cooled sufficiently. If, however, a temporary kiln was used, the clay products are frequently not removed until shipment. When clay products are burned in tunnel kilns, the processes of drying, setting, burning, and drawing come under one department. The green ware is loaded on cars, moved through the tunnel, and delivered at the other end ready for sorting and loading. For drawing, sorting, and loading 1.9 man-hours were required per thousand common bricks, 3.3 man-hours per thousand machine-molded face bricks, and 4.8 man-hours per thousand face bricks molded by hand. The greater labor requirements for drawing, sorting, and loading face brick as compared with common brick were due to the extra handling

and selecting for grade and color. The drawing, sorting, and loading of a thousand paving bricks required 0.5 man-hour less than hand-molded face brick. A ton of structural tile required 0.9 man-hour; ceramic floor tile, 6.5 man-hours per hundred square feet; and wall tile, 10.5 man-hours per hundred square feet, including the application of a glazing substance. For drawing, sorting, and loading a ton of glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping, 2.5 man-hours were required.

Repairing.—The labor required for the upkeep of equipment, buildings, and kilns is included in the estimate of man-hours for this department. When scove kilns are used for burning, no labor is required for repair work on the kiln. The man-hours required for repair work ranged from 0.4 man-hour per ton of structural tile to 2.0 man-hours per thousand paving brick.

Miscellaneous.—The services of employees such as watchmen, superintendents, and clerks are included in the "miscellaneous" labor. Since the work performed by these employees is of a general nature, the labor requirements cannot be charged to the various departments in the process of manufacturing. The man-hours required in miscellaneous operations ranged from 0.5 man-hour per ton of structural tile to 2.5 man-hours per thousand paving bricks.

All Departments

The manufacture of common brick required 8.0 man-hours per thousand; machine-molded face brick, 11.1 man-hours per thousand; hand-molded face brick, 20.3 man-hours per thousand; paving brick, 14.9 man-hours per thousand; a ton of structural tile, 3.6 man-hours; ceramic floor tile, 19.0 man-hours per hundred square feet; wall tile, 22.0 man-hours per hundred square feet; and a ton of glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping, 11.0 man-hours.

The greatest percentage of the total manufacturing labor required was involved in the drawing, sorting, and loading department for each of the clay products included in the study, with the exception of common brick, hand-molded face brick, and glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping. For these three products labor in the machine house accounted for 26.0 percent, 53.2 percent, and 36.4 percent, respectively. Repairing required the smallest percentage of the total labor involved in manufacturing for all products other than paving brick and glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping. For paving brick, setting required 8.1 percent of the total manufacturing labor; and for glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping, miscellaneous labor required 6.4 percent.

Table 5 shows the man-hours required to manufacture clay products.

TABLE 5.—*Man-Hours Required to Manufacture Clay Products*

Product	Unit	Number of man-hours required						
		All departments	Machine house	Setting	Burning	Drawing, sorting, and loading	Repairing	Miscellaneous
Common brick, standard, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches, 4½ to 5½ pounds.	1,000	8.0	2.1	1.3	1.0	1.9	0.8	0.9
Machine-molded face brick, standard, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches.	1,000	11.1	2.2	1.5	1.7	3.3	1.1	1.3
Hand-molded face brick, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches.	1,000	20.3	10.8	1.5	1.7	4.8	.7	.8
Paving brick, standard, 8 x 3½ x 4 inches, 10 pounds.	1,000	14.9	2.2	1.2	2.7	4.3	2.0	2.5
Structural tile	1 ton	3.6	.8	.5	.5	.9	.4	.5
Ceramic floor tile, assembled and pasted.	100 square feet	19.0	5.9	(1)	2.9	6.5	1.5	2.2
Wall tile, glazed or enameled	do	22.0	5.2	(1)	3.5	[2] 10.5	1.4	1.4
Glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping.	1 ton	11.0	4.0	1.2	1.4	2.5	1.2	.7

[1] Tunnel kilns are used almost exclusively. Setting operations are included, therefore, in drawing, sorting, and loading.

[2] Glazing operation included.

Selling and Administration

Administrative and selling labor per unit of product varies inversely with demand. The man-hour requirements shown in table 6, therefore, were slightly greater than would be the case if the industry were operating at a higher percentage of yearly capacity. The estimate of the labor involved in selling and administration is based on the assumption that each employee engaged in selling and administrative occupations worked 2,000 hours in 1935.[11] The total hours worked were divided by the quantity of sales in 1935.

The man-hours required for selling and administration ranged from 0.6 man-hour per ton of structural tile to 2.0 man-hours per thousand hand-molded face bricks.

TABLE 6.—*Man-Hours Required in Selling and Administration, Clay-Products Industry*

Product	Unit	Number of man-hours required
Common brick, standard, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches, 4½ to 5½ pounds	1,000	0.8
Machine-molded face brick, standard, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches	1,000	1.3
Hand-molded face brick, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches	1,000	2.0
Paving brick, standard, 8 x 3½ x 4 inches, 10 pounds	1,000	1.6
Structural tile	1 ton	.6
Ceramic floor tile, assembled and pasted	100 square feet	1.0
Wall tile, glazed or enameled	do	1.6
Glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping	1 ton	1.7

[11] Estimated on the basis of 50 work weeks, of 40 hours each, per year.

Transportation

Finished clay products are moved to market by rail, water, or truck. In the case of rail and water shipments, the products are carried to the terminal, unloaded on a truck, and delivered to the job. When direct shipments are made by truck from the clay-products factory to the site of construction the labor involved consists of hauling by truck only.

In 1935 approximately four-tenths of the production of common brick was hauled by rail, one-tenth by boat, and the other half by truck. A study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics showed that the average number of man-hours involved in transporting common brick by rail was 0.88 man-hour per ton or 2.2 man-hours per thousand bricks. The labor required for handling trucks in hauling brick direct from the brickyard to the site of construction and unloading at the site accounted for 1.5 man-hours per thousand. When bricks were hauled by rail, they were unloaded at a terminal onto a truck. This required 1.0 man-hour per thousand. Trucking to the job required an additional 1.5 man-hours per thousand. These man-hours included unloading at the job site. When bricks were hauled by boat they were unloaded on the dock, loaded on a truck, and hauled to the construction site. Approximately 3.0 man-hours per thousand bricks were required for hauling by boat, unloading on the dock, and loading on a truck. Trucking to the job and unloading at the construction site involved an additional 1.5 man-hours per thousand. A weighted average of the three methods of transportation, based on the percentage of the product hauled by each, showed that 3.1 man-hours of labor were required to transport a thousand common bricks in 1935. In this study no attempt was made to include the labor involved in distributing brick through retail dealers. Additional labor is involved in distribution through a retail yard because of handling at the yard. The man-hours required to load the car, boat, or truck at the brickyard were included in the manufacturing process. Approximately 70 percent of the machine-molded face brick used in the United States in 1935 was shipped by rail and the remainder was delivered directly to the job by truck. A study of rail transportation made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicated that 1.41 man-hours were involved in transporting 1 ton of face brick by rail and approximately 3.5 man-hours were involved in hauling 1,000 face bricks by rail. Unloading the brick at the terminal, hauling to the job, and unloading involved an additional 3.5 man-hours per thousand. Face brick hauled directly to the site of construction from the brickyard by truck required 1.5 man-hours per thousand, and 1.0 man-hour for unloading. A weighted average of the labor required to

distribute machine-molded face brick, by rail or truck, indicated that 5.7 man-hours were involved in distributing this product in 1935.

About 90 percent of the hand-molded face brick was distributed by rail and 10 percent by truck. A weighted average of the labor involved in distributing hand-molded face brick was estimated at 6.7 man-hours per thousand.

Approximately 75 percent of the structural tile used in the United States in 1935 reached the market by rail. Based on the Bureau's study of the man-hours of labor involved in rail transportation 1.4 man-hours were required to transport 1 ton of structural tile by rail. A weighted average of the man-hours involved in distributing this product by rail and by truck and unloading at the site of construction was estimated at 3.8 man-hours per ton.

Sixty percent of paving brick was shipped by rail and 40 percent was distributed by truck. A study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicated that 1.41 man-hours were involved in the transportation of 1 ton of paving brick, and the weighted average of the man-hours involved in distributing a thousand paving brick was 6.7 man-hours.

A study of 7 manufacturers' freight charges for shipping glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping showed that 70 percent of these products were shipped by rail. A study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicated that 2.01 man-hours were involved in the transportation of 1 ton of these products by rail. Unloading of these products at the terminal required 1.0 man-hour per ton and trucking to the site and unloading, 2.0 man-hours. Transportation by truck only and unloading at the site involved 2.5 man-hours of labor. A weighted average of the two methods of transportation showed 4.3 man-hours were involved in the distribution of a ton of glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping in 1935.

The shipment of wall tile and ceramic floor tile is about equally divided between rail and truck. The rail-transportation study showed that 2.63 man-hours were required to transport 1 ton of wall tile by rail, and 2.63 man-hours for 1 ton of ceramic floor tile. On the basis of these figures and allowing 2 man-hours per ton for transporting by truck to the job and unloading at the site of construction, a weighted average of the labor involved in distributing wall tile and ceramic floor tile showed that 3.8 man-hours were required for every ton of wall tile and 3.3 man-hours for ceramic floor tile used in 1935. This is equivalent to 0.8 man-hour per hundred square feet of wall tile, and 0.5 man-hour per hundred square feet of ceramic floor tile.

Table 7 shows the man-hours required to transport finished clay products to the site of construction.

TABLE 7.—*Man-Hours Required to Transport Finished Clay Products to Site of Construction*

Product	Unit	Number of man-hours required
Common brick, standard, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches, 4½ to 5½ pounds	1,000	3.1
Machine-molded face brick, standard, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches	1,000	5.7
Hand-molded face brick, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches	1,000	6.7
Paving brick, standard, 8 x 3½ x 4 inches, 10 pounds	1,000	6.7
Structural tile	1 ton	3.8
Ceramic floor tile, assembled and pasted	100 square feet	.5
Wall tile, glazed or enameled	do	.8
Glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping	1 ton	4.3

Summary by Operations

The labor required to produce and distribute clay products amounted to 14.5 man-hours per thousand common bricks, 20.9 man-hours per thousand machine-molded face bricks, 31.8 man-hours per thousand hand-molded face bricks, 29.3 man-hours per thousand paving bricks, 9.9 man-hours per ton of structural tile, 22.0 man-hours per hundred square feet of ceramic floor tile, 26.7 man-hours per hundred square feet of wall tile, and 22.8 man-hours per ton of glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping. More labor (4.0 man-hours) was required to produce the raw material used in a thousand paving bricks than for any of the other products included in the study. A hundred square feet of ceramic floor tile required 1.0 man-hour for raw-material production. The transportation of the raw material to the site ranged from 0.4 man-hour per ton of structural tile to 2.5 man-hours per ton of glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping. The labor involved in manufacture ranged from 3.6 man-hours for 1 ton of structural tile to 22.0 man-hours per hundred square feet of wall tile. The greatest number of man-hours for selling and administration were 2.0 for a thousand hand-molded face bricks; the smallest, 0.6 man-hour per ton of structural tile. Transportation labor involved in moving the finished clay products from the brickyard to the construction site ranged from 0.5 man-hour per hundred square feet of ceramic floor tile to 6.7 man-hours per thousand hand-molded face bricks and paving brick.

A total of 14.5 man-hours was required to produce and distribute a thousand common bricks. The production of the raw material required 13.8 percent of the total labor required for common brick; transportation of the raw material to the clay-products yard, 4.1 percent; manufacture, 55.2 percent; selling and administration, 5.5 percent; and transportation to the construction site, 21.4 percent. Of the 20.9 man-hours required to produce and distribute a thousand machine-molded face bricks, the production of the raw material accounted for 10.5 percent of the labor; transportation of the raw material, for 2.9 percent; manufacture, for 53.1 percent; selling and administration, for 6.2 percent; and transportation to the construction site for 27.3 percent. A comparison of the labor requirements

of face brick molded by hand with that molded by machine showed that the hand-molded product required 31.8 man-hours per thousand. or over 50 percent more than that made by machine. The transportation of hand-molded face brick and structural tile to the site of construction required a higher percentage of the man-hours than for any of the other products. The 9.9 man-hours required per ton of structural tile were distributed by operations as follows: Raw material production, 15.1 percent; transportation of the raw material, 4.0 percent; manufacture, 36.4 percent; selling and administration, 6.1 percent; and transportation to the construction site, 38.4 percent. The manufacturing operation in the production and distribution of a hundred square feet of ceramic floor tile required the greater proportion of the total labor required for that product, 86.4 percent; raw material production and selling and administration each required 4.5 percent. The manufacture of a hundred square feet of wall tile represented 82.4 percent of the total labor required to produce and distribute a hundred square feet of the product. In all 22.8 man-hours were required to produce and distribute 1 ton of glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping. Of the total labor required for this product 14.5 percent was required to produce the raw material, 11.0 percent to transport the raw material to the site of manufacture, 48.2 percent for manufacturing, 7.4 percent in selling and administration, and 18.9 percent in transportation to the construction site.

The production and distribution of a ton of clay products for which data were collected during 1935 required 9.8 man-hours.[12] The production of the raw material accounted for 1.2 man-hours per ton of product; transportation of the raw material to the site of construction, for 0.5 man-hour; manufacture, for 5.5 man-hours; selling and administration, for 0.6 man-hour; and transportation of the finished clay products and unloading at the construction site, for 2.0 man-hours.

TABLE 8.—*Summary of Man-Hours Required to Produce and Distribute Clay Products*

Product	Unit	Number of man-hours required					
		All operations	Raw material production	Transportation of raw material	Manufacture	Selling and administration	Transportation to construction site
Common brick, standard, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches, 4½ to 5½ pounds.	1,000	14.5	2.0	0.6	8.0	0.8	3.1
Machine-molded face brick, standard, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches.	1,000	20.9	2.2	.6	11.1	1.3	5.7
Hand-molded face brick, 8 x 2¼ x 3¾ inches.	1,000	31.8	2.2	.6	20.3	2.0	6.7
Paving brick, standard, 8 x 3½ x 4 inches, 10 pounds.	1,000	29.3	4.0	2.1	14.9	1.6	6.7
Structural tile	1 ton	9.9	1.5	.4	3.6	.6	3.8
Ceramic floor tile, assembled and pasted.	100 square feet	22.0	1.0	.5	19.0	1.0	.5
Wall tile, glazed or enameled	100 square feet	26.7	1.4	.9	22.0	1.6	.8
Glazed clay sewer pipe, flue lining, and wall coping.	1 ton	22.8	3.3	2.5	11.0	1.7	4.3

[12] Average for all clay products included in the study converted to tons.

Application to Federal Construction Projects

On the basis of the labor required in 1935, it is estimated that 69,800,000 man-hours of labor were involved away from the site of construction in the production and distribution of the $77,572,000 [13] worth of clay products used on the Federal construction program from the time the Bureau of Labor Statistics began collecting data on the value of materials used on the various programs until June 15, 1937.[14] Assuming 2,000 hours per year, these man-hours are equivalent to furnishing 34,900 men full-time employment for 1 year. More than 5,590,000 tons of clay products valued at $49,790,000 [15] were used on P. W. A. projects. The production and distribution of these clay products involved approximately 44,800,000 man-hours of "behind-the-lines" employment. On the basis of 2,000 hours per year these man-hours are equivalent to furnishing 22,400 men full-time employment for 1 year.

Labor in the mines and factories furnishing raw material used in the production processes was 12 percent of the total indirect labor required; transportation of the raw material, 5 percent; manufacturing, 56 percent; selling and administration, 6 percent; and transportation of the finished products, 21 percent.

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[13] Excluding floor and wall tile and terrazzo, expenditures for which amounted to $8,109,000.

[14] The Bureau of Labor Statistics has been collecting statistics on the value of material orders placed on construction projects financed by P. W. A. funds since the beginning of the program in July 1933, by funds provided by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation from April 1934, from regular governmental appropriations from July 1934, and by The Works Program beginning in July 1935.

[15] Excluding floor and wall tile and terrazzo, expenditures for which amounted to $6,554,000.

TRIBUNAL FOR VOLUNTARY INDUSTRIAL ARBITRATION

THE Voluntary Industrial Arbitration Tribunal, an unofficial, nonpartisan agency for the adjudication of labor disputes was created by the American Arbitration Association, effective October 20, 1937. This action was prompted by "the fact that a constantly increasing number of disputes between management and labor are being voluntarily referred to the association for arbitration." The general principles and the rules of procedure under which the newly created agency will function are announced in the October 1937 issue of The Arbitration Journal.

Because established precedents and procedures of the American Arbitration Association, designed for commercial arbitration, are not especially adapted to labor disputes, the industrial tribunal will be an entirely separate entity, under a different management, and will operate under different rules from those of the parent organization.

General Principles

The tribunal will offer its facilities "on precisely equal terms, under equally fair conditions, to both management and labor." Requests for its services must be voluntary on the part of both parties to the dispute, and it will consider only those matters which have been referred to it in the manner and to the extent agreed upon by them. All available means of conciliation and mediation "must have been exhausted or failed through the efforts of the parties or other agencies before a board of arbitrators will be convened." Moreover, an arbitration agreement naming the tribunal as the arbitral agency must be contained in the collective agreement or be executed to cover the specific dispute before the adjudicating machinery will be set in motion.

To facilitate reference of industrial disputes to arbitration under its proposed plan, the American Arbitration Association recommends that the following clause be incorporated in collective agreements between employers and employees:

> Any dispute, claim, or difference arising out of or relating to this agreement, or the breach thereof, shall be submitted to arbitration under the industrial arbitration rules, then obtaining, of the American Arbitration Association.

The Arbitration Journal, the official organ of the association, will have one section devoted to the work of the Voluntary Industrial Arbitration Tribunal, in which tribunal awards and other matters of interest in the general field of labor mediation and arbitration will be reported.

As announced by the American Arbitration Association:

> Insofar as is humanly possible, the Tribunal offers a panel of arbitrators chosen solely for their integrity, impartiality, and competence. From this panel the parties make their own selections, rejecting those not acceptable to them. When each party appoints his own arbitrator, then the third arbitrator is chosen from this list. Every precaution is being taken to designate impartial arbitrators acceptable to both parties.

The tribunal thus becomes a medium through which a board of arbitration may be selected for each case, in such manner as to meet the particular requirements of that case, rather than a permanent arbitral body acting on all types of labor disputes. The position of arbitrator will be purely an honorary one unless the parties, with the approval of the administrative body, authorize payment.

Organization and Procedure

Direction and control of the administrative affairs of the tribunal will be in the hands of an administrative council appointed by the American Arbitration Association, under a chairman similarly selected. The duty of maintaining a panel of qualified arbitrators will be discharged by the council, and to that end it "may invite organizations representative of industry, labor, and the public, or other approved institutions to make nominations for arbitrator-members of the tribunal." Arbitrators are to be chosen for a 2-year period, and the appointment of any arbitrator may be terminated by the council "for what seems to it to be good and sufficient reasons" at any time except while he is engaged on a case. Vacancies will be filled in the same manner as the original appointment.

An arbitration committee of three members is to be appointed by the chairman of the council through which the routine business of the tribunal will function. In the absence of agreement on the selection of arbitrators or on the method of their selection, by the parties in dispute, the arbitration committee is to determine the number and make the appointments.

Arbitral proceedings may be through formal hearings, with or without counsel, under rules prescribed by the association, or hearings may be dispensed with and proceedings conducted in any manner mutually satisfactory to the parties in dispute. Arbitrators may also be authorized to make independent inquiries into matters entering into the controversy.

The award, which shall be by majority vote unless otherwise specified, shall be made and rendered in writing within 30 days after the close of the proceedings. In case of disagreement between the parties as to the meaning or execution of the award, the board of arbitrators making the decision will be called upon to interpret it. If the board cannot be reassembled, the interpretation will be made by the arbitration committee. That committee will also interpret the rules of procedure to the arbitrators in the event of disagreement between them concerning the application of the rules.

If a voluntary agreement should be reached by the contending parties during and independent of the arbitration proceedings, the arbitrators may embody the terms of the settlement in a decision issued in the form and with the status of an arbitral award.

AMENDMENT OF FRENCH ARBITRATION LAW [1]

THE CONCILIATION and arbitration of disputes between employers and employees in industry and commerce in France was made compulsory by a law passed December 31, 1936, and a decree containing the regulations governing the procedure under the law was issued January 16, 1937.[2] This decree was amended by a decree, issued September 18, 1937, having for its purpose the speeding up of the arbitration machinery. There had been criticism of the delays in application of the process of arbitration to specific conflicts and the labor unions had urged modifications to accelerate its effectiveness.

The original legislation provided for organization of the conciliation proceedings in three stages before submitting the question to arbitration. First, a departmental or interdepartmental committee of representatives of the local organizations of employers and employees would be called upon. If this committee was unable to settle the dispute, a joint mixed conciliation committee formed of representatives of the national employers' and workers' organizations in the industry concerned would be appointed; and if this committee failed in reaching a settlement, a national interoccupational committee comprising representatives of the two principal national confederations of employers' and workers' organizations would endeavor to reach a settlement. If all of these successive attempts to settle the question failed, arbitration proceedings would be instituted and the decision of the arbitrators, or of the umpire in case the arbitrators failed to agree, would be binding.

The new decree provides for immediate application of arbitration in case a majority of the conciliation committee finds that methods

[1] Data are from Journal Officiel (Paris), Sept. 19, 1937; and report from Benjamin M. Hulley, American consul at Paris, dated Sept. 22, 1937.

[2] See Monthly Labor Review, April 1937 (p. 902).

of conciliation are inadequate to settle the dispute or if one of the parties to the dispute fails or refuses to appear before the conciliation committee. If the departmental committee or the mixed joint committee, as the case may be, decides by a majority vote that conciliation would be useless, the arbitration procedure is invoked immediately and either a single arbitrator is chosen or each side may appoint one. The Minister of Labor or his representative is authorized to proceed to arbitration when either one of the federations has failed to respond to an instruction, sent by registered mail, to provide for its representation on the joint mixed conciliation committee.

The two principal federations of employers and employees were required within 15 days of the publication of the decree, to submit a list of 40 persons, instead of the 15 formerly required, who are qualified to serve as arbitrators. At least three-fourths of the persons on the lists must have been engaged in an industrial or a commercial occupation.

Education and Training

TRAINING OF DOMESTIC SERVANTS IN SWEDEN

THE FIRST schools of domestic science in Sweden were established in 1860. In the beginning these schools received no subsidies from the State, but now such grants are made for domestic training. This training, however, is not compulsory to elementary, higher elementary, continuation, and municipal intermediate schools.

Lessons in cookery are given in elementary and higher elementary schools to classes of not fewer than eight pupils, for 4 or 5 hours per day on not less than 34 days in the year. The curriculum of the continuation schools provides for practical training, which includes a certain amount of domestic-service training. For some years past, State subsidies have been paid for domestic-service training in the higher popular schools, according to an agreement with the Department of Education.

Vocational training for household service is given in municipal institutions, domestic-service schools, and domestic-science schools, all of which receive State subsidies; and also in institutions which are not subsidized.

A survey of the existing situation in regard to training for domestic service in Sweden, and a number of practical proposals in this connection, were recently published by the Swedish Social Board. A résumé of the findings of that Board's report is given in the International Labor Review of September 1937, which is the source of the present article.[1]

The investigators found it exceedingly difficult to come to any definite conclusions on the problem under consideration, especially because domestic servants have a tendency not to remain long in one position, and because mistresses and servants differ in their views concerning domestic work. Furthermore, it is hard to get exact information as to the extent of a shortage of domestic servants. Many domestic workers obtain employment through personal recommendations, as the employment offices cannot successfully place applicants who often are wholly inexperienced in the domestic-service field.

[1] For information on a related subject see Monthly Labor Review for March 1937, p. 607: Working Conditions of Domestic Servants in Sweden.

A government order of November 4, 1921, controls the municipal institutions, among which are apprenticeship schools and vocational schools.

The apprenticeship schools include domestic training for girls who have taken theoretical domestic-service courses in continuation schools. Courses are also provided, in the apprenticeship schools, for older persons who have not been able to avail themselves of the opportunities offered at continuation schools.

Domestic training is only sometimes compulsory for girls. The course is for 2 years and lasts for 8 or 9 months of the year, with an average of not more than 12 hours weekly. A local authority which sets up an apprenticeship school, either alone or jointly with another local authority, may decide that girls under age, living or employed within its area, may be obliged to follow a course of domestic training for not more than 2 years; this obligation lapses when they reach the age of 18 years. Candidates for admission to an apprenticeship school for domestic service must have completed their education at a compulsory continuation school and must, in the opinion of the head teacher, have the necessary aptitude to benefit by the training in question. No fees are charged.

The vocational school makes it possible for persons already in domestic service, and having adequate experience, to add to the knowledge which they have secured in an apprenticeship school. The curriculum provides vocational and special courses and preparatory training in household management, which may be given either in the evening or during the day. Tuition is charged, and candidates are required to have a certificate from an apprenticeship school, to be 17 years of age with at least 2 years of experience, and to have enough aptitude to make the training advantageous.

Vocational domestic training is also available, in a variety of courses, the most common being the continuation course, which is rather long and is planned for employed persons. More intensive courses are also provided for a greater number of weekly hours. These courses have been offered only within the last few years, those in Göteborg, for example, beginning in 1932. Students must have reached the age of 17 and have been employed in domestic service for at least 2 years. The course averages 40½ hours per week and lasts for 22 weeks.

Since the 1918 educational reform, domestic-service schools have been established in rural sections and in the smaller towns. These institutions have the same curriculum as the municipal apprenticeship and vocational schools. The domestic-service schools and the domestic-science schools are quite similar. However, since the Government order of 1921 referred to above, domestic-service schools have been assimilated to the municipal vocational schools. Fees are charged, but students who have not sufficient means may be admitted without paying fees or at less than the usual charge. The course

covers 1 year, the weekly hours ranging from 30 to 40. Shorter courses are also available.

The vocational-training order is applicable also to private vocational-training institutions receiving State grants, that is, to the domestic-science schools. These schools do not have uniform curricula, but the survey disclosed that a large number of their students find employment in domestic service.

The private schools which receive no subsidy from the State also prepare their pupils for domestic service, the training being comparable to that given in restaurants and hotels. Ordinarily, fees are charged and the training is more practical than theoretical.

Mistresses also accept girls as apprentices and train them in exchange for a certain fee. The experts do not favor this system, for mistresses rarely possess the necessary qualifications for teaching. Moreover, if this form of training were recognized by law, the pupil would have to receive a complete systematic course of training and in return would have to remain in her post for a certain period fixed by agreement. In view of the present situation in Sweden, the experts are doubtful whether it would be possible to secure compliance with this obligation and they consider that such a course would meet with serious obstacles. The contracts would certainly have to contain definite detailed provisions concerning the obligations of the two parties. It would also be necessary to have an inspection service to secure compliance and to supervise the value of the training given.

According to the investigators, vocational training in a household, combined with relatively long attendance at evening classes, has not proved highly satisfactory. A domestic servant who desires additional training does not wish, however, to sacrifice from 8 to 12 hours of her very limited leisure every week. Mistresses themselves are not in favor of the system and those who have practical experience of domestic training seem more and more prone to object to it.

Conclusions

For the reasons set forth above, the investigators are in favor of intensive training. More than 70 percent of the girls who are domestic servants are from the country, and consequently the rural schools should be able to give the requisite rudimentary domestic-service training, after which the students can either take further vocational-training courses or take employment without any special courses. In this connection the experts, in their report, gave expression to a hope that the decision of the Riksdag in 1936 to make domestic training obligatory in the seventh school year, would be accepted in the final discussions on reform of elementary education.

On the basis of their investigations, the experts also conclude that the best solution to the problem of providing an up-to-date vocational-training system for domestic servants is the setting up of a model

school to demonstrate these methods, with the objective of systematically improving the standard of knowledge of such servants. This institution should be established by the State, as distinct from the existing schools organized by local authorities with State aid. Notwithstanding possible objections, the experts hold that the proposed institution should be a residential one. It is also recommended that the Department of Education should directly supervise this model school. The institution would teach women employed in domestic activities how to work on their own responsibility, and at the same time would supply households with servants who are properly trained. An outline of the suggested curriculum is given below:

1. *Normal training.*—This training would include two courses:

(*a*) A course of 6 months for girls of 18 years of age or over who have had at least 2 years' practical experience. No tuition fees would be required, and students whose means were not sufficient would be given free accommodations; the others would pay 60 kronor[2] per month. The training course would cover 24 weeks of 48 hours each, of which 42 hours would be taken up in practical training (cooking, preserving, housekeeping, including cleaning, table service, washing, ironing, and mending) and 6 hours of theoretical training (theory of cooking, nutrition, household management, domestic economy and hygiene, and vocational psychology).

(*b*) A course of 12 months for girls 17 years of age or over who have had at least 1 year of practical experience. The same conditions of residence would obtain as for the 6 months' course. The training period would be 46 weeks of 48 hours each (43½ hours of practical training and 4½ of theory). Needlework and the care of children, as well as the subjects of the 6 months' course, would be included in the curriculum. A student completing either of these courses successfully would be awarded a certificate as a skilled domestic servant.

2. *Special training.*—Special training courses would be available to persons who have certificates as skilled domestic servants and who have reached the age of 20 years. Fees would be required and the training would include:

Course for—	*Training period*	*Leading to—*
(*a*) Cooks	16 weeks of 48 hours (43 hours practical work).	Certificate as skilled cook.
(*b*) General servants	12 weeks of 48 hours (43½ hours practical work).	Skilled general servant.
(*c*) Child care	24 weeks of 48 hours (44 hours practical work).	Skilled nurse.
(*d*) More highly qualified domestic employees.	30½ weeks for those who have taken normal course 1 (*a*) and 5 months for those who have taken normal course 1 (*b*).	

[2] Average exchange rate of Swedish krona in 1936 = 25.6 cents.

Those taking course (*d*) for highly qualified domestic employees would be trained especially in budgeting for expenditures on food at different income levels, purchasing methods, accounts, planning and calculating the nutritive value of simple and more elaborate meals, estimating the amount of fuel required, child care, child psychology, invalid cookery, care of the sick, and needlework.

3. *Supplementary courses on special subjects.*—These courses are designed to make it possible for a student who has a certificate as skilled domestic servant from a domestic-service school or the State school, to follow the curriculum of the vocational courses for experienced domestic employees, except the subjects listed under 2 (*d*) above. The curriculum would include needlework, child care, household economy, the care of the sick, and invalid cookery.

4. *"Examination" courses.*—Through these courses a person in domestic service who has had no school training will be able to secure a certificate as a skilled domestic servant. Only persons between the ages of 24 and 45 years, with at least 5 years' practical experience, would be accepted for this training, which would cover 3 weeks and for which a fee would be charged.

Labor Laws

STATE AND FEDERAL LEGISLATIVE SESSIONS IN 1938

DURING 1938 regular sessions will be held in nine State legislatures[1] and in the territorial legislatures of Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and the Philippine Islands. Some of the State legislatures not scheduled for regular sessions in 1938 may also be called into special session by the governors.

In the United States, a majority of the States hold biennial sessions; the legislatures of all but four of these meet in odd-numbered years. The legislative body of Alabama meets only every fourth year; it will hold its next regular session in 1939.

By virtue of the so called "lame duck" amendment, the Congress of the United States convenes annually on January 3, unless a different date is established at the preceding Congress. However, on October 12, 1937, President Roosevelt called the Congress into special session on November 15, 1937. This session, the second of the 75th Congress, will be followed by a third session, beginning January 3, 1938. In a statement, subsequent to calling the special session, the President stressed the desirability of enacting certain legislation, particularly the reorganization of the executive departments of the Government, a wages and hours law, and farm legislation.

Of the State legislatures meeting in 1938, all except Louisiana will meet in January. The Louisiana legislature will assemble on the second Monday in May. In four States the legislative sessions to be held next year are limited to 60 days. In the remaining States there is no limit to the length of the session. This is also the case now of the regular sessions of the National Congress.

The following table shows the States meeting in regular legislative session in 1938, as well as the date of convening, and the length of the session wherever fixed by law.

[1] Kentucky, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Mississippi, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, South Carolina, and Virginia.

Regular Legislative Sessions in 1938

State	Time of assembly fixed by law	Date of convening 1938 session	Length of session
Kentucky	Tuesday after first Monday in January	Jan. 4	60 days.
Louisiana	Second Monday in May	May 9	Do.
Massachusetts	First Wednesday in January	Jan. 5	No limit.
Mississippi	Tuesday after first Monday in January	Jan. 4	Do.
New Jersey	Second Tuesday in January	Jan. 11	Do.
New York	First Wednesday in January	Jan. 5	Do.
Rhode Island	First Tuesday in January	Jan. 4	60 days.
South Carolina	Second Tuesday in January	Jan. 11	No limit.
Virginia	Second Wednesday in January	Jan. 12	60 days.[1]

[1] May be extended up to 30 days by a three-fifths vote in each house.

BRITISH FACTORIES ACT, 1937

THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT enacted in 1937 the first general factory act adopted in that country since 1901. While to a great extent the new law (1 Edw. 8 and 1 Geo. 6, ch. 67) merely codifies and strengthens existing legislation, it also modernizes that legislation and in addition introduces several new regulatory features demanded by modern conditions in industry.

Coverage

Heretofore British labor legislation has drawn distinctions, in varying degrees, between textile and nontextile factories, and between factories and workshops, defining workshops as manufacturing plants not using mechanical power. The new law wipes out these distinctions and gives a broad definition of "factory" which brings within the scope of the act practically all manufacturing plants and processes incident or preliminary to manufacture, regardless of the scale or method by which they are carried on. Moreover, the factory act is for the first time applied to "building operations and works of engineering construction undertaken by or on behalf of the Crown."

The provisions of the act, which, in general, become effective on and after July 1, 1938, will apply to approximately 7,000,000[1] working men, women, and children, although the clauses regulating hours of work apply only to women and minors under 18 years of age.

Safety, Sanitation, and Welfare

Under the heading of general health provisions, standards of cleanliness, temperature, ventilation, and sanitary facilities are set up which in some cases are entirely new and in others represent a substantial improvement over existing regulations. Factory lighting

[1] Labour (official organ of the British Trades Union Congress), April 1937, p. 188.

is for the first time made subject to statutory regulation in the provision that sufficient and suitable lighting, either natural or artificial, must be maintained, and in authorizing the Secretary of State to issue regulations prescribing adequate standards of lighting for any factory or any process. Regulations defining overcrowding were amended to require 400 cubic feet of space per worker, instead of 250 cubic feet as at present, in rooms which become workrooms after the passage of the act. Rooms in use at the time to which the provision of 250 cubic feet per worker applied may continue on that standard, provided effective and suitable mechanical ventilation is installed and maintained.

Various provisions regarding adequate supplies of good water for drinking and washing purposes, accommodations for clothing, seats for women, and first-aid equipment, which have long been required by administrative orders, are made statutory by the new act. The authority to issue further administrative regulations having the force of law in matters pertaining to health, safety, and welfare, is specifically continued under the law, as is also the power to grant exemptions.

A new clause gives the Secretary of State authority to require that suitable medical supervision and preventive treatment be provided in factories of any class or kind where (*a*) illness has occurred which the Secretary of State has reason to believe may be due to the nature of the work; (*b*) health hazards may develop from processes or substances used; and (*c*) young persons may be employed in hazardous occupations.

The safety sections of the act are in large part a codification of existing laws and regulations. New features deal chiefly with pressure vessels and provisions against fire hazards.

Hours of Labor

Statutory working hours for women, and for boys between the ages of 14 and 18 years, are fixed by the act at not to exceed 9 per day nor 48 per week. That provision is in lieu of former statutory regulations which limited employment in textile factories to 55½ hours and in nontextile factories to 60 hours a week. Children between 14 and 16 years of age, under the new act, will be limited, after July 1, 1939, to a 44-hour week, unless the employer can establish the fact that the industry is "so dependent on the employment of such young persons and so organized that the carrying on of the industry would be seriously prejudiced" by the shorter workweek, that the increased hours would not be injurious, and that the work upon which the young persons are engaged is particularly suitable and has definite value as training for adult employment.

A departure from former practice in regulating working hours for women and young workers is found in the overtime permitted under the new act. As expressed in the official organ of the British Trades Union Congress, the law, for the first time, sanctions the principle "that overtime is a normal accompaniment to industry for women and young persons in all factories."[2] Overtime is prohibited for minors under 16 years of age. For those over that age, and for women, a total of 100 hours' overtime may be required in a calendar year, limited to 6 hours per week and 25 weeks in a year. In case of "seasonal or other special pressure," or emergency, the Secretary of State, if he is convinced of the necessity for such action, may increase the aggregate overtime allowance for women to 150 hours in the calendar year.

[1] Labour, July 1937, p. 264: Workers' New Charter, by J. L. Smyth.

STATE LAWS REGULATING SALE OF PRISON-MADE GOODS

A RECENT survey by the Prison Industries Reorganization Administration[1] discloses that 12 States prohibit altogether the sale or distribution of prison-made goods (including imports) on the open market, 16 additional States have enacted general prohibitions with certain exemptions, and 8 States, including 3 of the foregoing, have legislation specifically prohibiting the sale or distribution of imported prison-made goods. Thus 33 States have placed some restriction on the sale of prison products. Those without such regulations are Alabama, Delaware, Florida, Iowa, Minnesota, Missouri, Nevada, New Mexico, North Dakota, South Carolina, South Dakota, Vermont, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming. All the States have laws regulating use of prison labor and manufacture of products in prisons. With 13 exceptions, they have legislation dealing with the consumption of prison-made products by the State or political subdivisions. In Alabama, Delaware, Florida, Louisiana, Maine, Minnesota, Nevada, New Mexico, North Dakota, Oregon, South Carolina, Vermont, and West Virginia, however, the laws do not specify what use is to be made of prison-made products. Practically all States permit the use of prisoners on road work, and 28 have provided for the use of prisoners on public works. The following tabulation, taken from the Prison Industries Reorganization Administration study, shows the status of legislation on these matters. The existence of regulations is indicated by "×", while a blank space indicates that no laws had been adopted at the time the report was prepared.

[1] U. S. Prison Industries Reorganization Administation. Bull. No. 1: Chart and Comment on Laws Affecting the Labor of Prisoners and the Sale and Distribution of Prison-Made Products in the United States. Washington, 1937.

States Having Laws Affecting Prison Labor and Sale of Prison-Made Goods

State	Prohibition of sale of goods—			Regulation		Use of prison labor permitted—	
	On open market (including imports)	With certain exemptions	Imported products specifically	Prison labor and manufacture of goods	Consumption of goods by State or political subdivisions	On roads	On public works
Alabama				×		×	×
Arizona	×			×	×	×	
Arkansas		×		×	×	×	
California		×		×	×	×	
Colorado	×			×	×	×	×
Connecticut		×		×	×	×	
Delaware				×		(1)	
Florida				×		×	
Georgia		×		×	×	×	×
Idaho	×			×	×	×	×
Illinois	×			×	×	×	(2)
Indiana			×	×	×	×	×
Iowa				×	×	×	×
Kansas		×		×	×	×	×
Kentucky	×			×	×	×	×
Louisiana		×		×		×	×
Maine			×	×		×	×
Maryland		×		×	×	×	×
Massachusetts		×		×	×	(3)	×
Michigan		×		×	×	×	
Minnesota				×		(4)	
Mississippi		×		×	×	×	×
Missouri				×	×	×	×
Montana	×		×	×	×	×	×
Nebraska		×		×	×	×	×
Nevada				×		×	×
New Hampshire	×		×	×	×	×	
New Jersey			×	×	×	×	×
New Mexico				×		×	×
New York	×			×	×	×	×
North Carolina		×		×	×	×	×
North Dakota				×		×	×
Ohio	×			×	×	×	×
Oklahoma	×			×	×	×	
Oregon		×		×		×	
Pennsylvania			×	×	×	×	×
Rhode Island	×			×	×	×	
South Carolina				×		×	×
South Dakota				×	×	×	×
Tennessee	×			×	×	×	
Texas			×	×	×	×	
Utah		×		×	×	×	
Vermont				×		(5)	
Virginia		×	×	×	×	×	×
Washington		×		×	×	×	
West Virginia				×		×	
Wisconsin				×	×	×	
Wyoming				×	×	(6)	

[1] No State penitentary; all roads taken over by State in 1935. Therefore status of use of prisoners is uncertain.

[2] Prison labor not permitted beyond institution walls.

[3] Prison labor not permitted beyond institution walls except for farming and reclamation.

[4] No provison; road material manufactured.

[5] Use of prison labor beyond institution walls is limited.

[6] No provision for State prisoners.

Colorado, Illinois, Kentucky, Montana, New York, and Ohio have especially complete legislation governing prison labor and sale of prison-made goods. Their laws specifically prohibit sale of goods on the open market (including imported products), regulate the use of prison labor and the manufacture and consumption of the products,

and provide for use of prison labor on roads and in construction of public works.

Reviewing past experience with prison labor problems, the report notes that the administrators of prisons in their task of securing employment for prisoners have made use of varied measures—the lease, contract, piece-price, State-account, the State-use, and the States-use systems. The leasing system was abandoned because of the brutality with which prisoners were often treated. The contract, piece-price, and State-account methods, being dependent upon disposal on the open market, have been protested by free labor. This campaign has passed through two phases: (1) the movement between 1890 and 1929 to prevent sale of prison products on the open market, which resulted in a certain amount of limiting legislation; and (2) the enactment in 1929 of the Hawes-Cooper Act, which became effective in 1934, and which "so divested prison-made goods of their interstate character as to permit States to regulate the sale or distribution of such goods within their borders, even though produced in penal systems of other States."

Subsequently, by the Ashurst-Sumners Act of 1935, Federal aid has been given in enforcement of any State law "by making it a Federal offense if prison-made goods are transported into a State in violation of its laws." Even when a State has no restrictive legislation regulating prison-made goods, all such products transported in interstate commerce must be labeled to show the place of origin.

After eliminating the employment systems that have been found open to abuses, only two acceptable methods of furnishing prison employment remain, that is, State use and States use. The definitions of these terms as accepted by the American Prison Association in 1936 follow:

> * * * the State-use system permits the labor and services of prisoners to be used exclusively for the State departments, institutions, and agencies, and prohibits the sale or distribution of prison-made goods on the open market. The States-use system contains the same elements as the State-use system, but, in addition, permits States to exchange, sell, or distribute prison-made products between and to the several State departments, institutions, and agencies.

Although organized labor has endorsed the State-use system, certain States have legislation that limits this type of employment. Under the State-use system State purchasing departments may be required to buy prison-made goods or may be merely permitted to do so. Some groups favor one method and some the other, but there is general agreement "that unless prisoners can be employed under the broad definition of the State-use system, idleness will result."

The Prison Industries Reorganization Administration finds that the campaign to eliminate competition between prison and private industry is meeting with success.

Labor Organizations

AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR CONVENTION, 1937

THE FIFTY-SEVENTH annual convention of the American Federation of Labor, held in Denver, Colo., October 4–15, 1937, took action on various matters of organizational and national significance, and reported substantial gains in membership.

Progress in Organization

The executive council of the American Federation of Labor in its report to the convention declared that as a consequence of the "impetus to union growth" which "followed directly upon the decision of the United States Supreme Court upholding the constitutionality of the Wagner Labor Relations Act,"[1] the American Federation of Labor and its constituent national and international unions had gained nearly a million new members. The average paid-up membership for the year 1937 was reported as 2,860,933, while total membership for the month of August 1937 was 3,271,726. Of this, 3,039,026 represented the membership, in good standing, of the 100 national and international unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor on August 31. That number of constituent unions, as compared with the 111 national and international unions in affiliation in August 1936, reflects a loss of 14 former affiliates and the acquisition of 3 new groups which affiliated during the year. The 14 include, beside the 11 unions that were suspended by order of the Tampa convention of 1936,[2] the American Newspaper Guild and the International Fur Workers' Union which withdrew, and the International Union of Pavers, which merged with another affiliated union, the International Hod Carriers, Building and Common Laborers' Union. The newly affiliated international unions are the American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees, the International Association of Cleaning and Dye House Workers, and the International Ladies' Handbag, Pocketbook, and Novelty Workers' Union. The convention also ratified the provisional charters granted, since the last convention, to the Progressive Miners of America and the International Spinners' Union.

[1] American Federation of Labor. Report of the Executive Council to the 57th Annual Convention, Denver, 1937 (p. 1).

[2] The "C. I. O." group. (See Monthly Labor Review, January 1937, p. 1.: The Organized Labor Movement, 1929 to 1937.)

In addition, the executive council reported that "great progress has been made in heretofore unorganized fields such as cement, aluminum, flour and cereal milling, agriculture, packing houses and canneries, white collar groups, and other miscellaneous industries." Workers in these groups, as organized, were chartered as directly affiliated local unions by the American Federation of Labor. During the year 869 charters were issued to these newly established local trade and federal labor unions, bringing the total at the close of the fiscal year (August 31, 1937) to 1,406, with a total paid-up membership on that date of 232,700.

A national council of federal labor unions in the enamelware and kitchen-utensil industry was formed in July 1937, and immediately after the close of the convention two more national councils of directly affiliated local unions were created, in accordance with the instructions of the convention. One of these covers cannery workers and agricultural laborers, while the other will deal with "white collar workers," beginning with the nucleus of 65 local unions of office workers now functioning. Plans were laid at the organizing conferences to expand organizing activities in both fields.

As indicated by their voting strength in the Denver convention, several of the international unions now have the largest membership in their history, and many of them have more than regained the ground lost during the depression.

Action on Labor Legislation

The report of the executive council to the convention contained an extensive review and analysis of outstanding national labor laws, including detailed discussions of the National Labor Relations Act and the Social Security Act. The executive council proposed amendments to both of these laws, which were endorsed by the convention. The amendment to the National Labor Relations Act, which the executive council was instructed to endeavor to secure, would add a provision similar to one contained in the Railway Labor Act, granting to the majority of any craft or class of employees the right to determine representation of that craft or class in collective-bargaining proceedings.

Recommended amendments to the Social Security Act dealt with extension of coverage to all industrial employees and to agricultural workers; abolition of employee contributions in States requiring such contributions; and repeal of the provision making strikers ineligible to unemployment compensation while on strike. The convention also authorized the continuance of the special committee appointed to study the entire subject of social insurance and the operation and adequacy of Federal and State social-security legislation and of governmental agencies administering it. Members of the executive council comprise this special committee.

J. Warren Madden, chairman of the National Labor Relations Board, and A. J. Altmeyer, chairman of the Social Security Board, addressed the convention, outlining the policies, procedures, and problems of their respective organizations, and pointing out the need and the manner of cooperative relations between workers and these Government agencies created in their interest.

Further legislative action, which the executive council recommended and the convention endorsed, dealt with prohibition of injunctions in labor disputes, industrial home work, and the creation of State labor relations boards patterned after the Federal agency created by the Wagner Act, and of State departments of labor in States which have not yet established that governmental agency. The convention directed that "the American Federation of Labor draft a model law regulating industrial home work" to be sent to the State federations of labor for action by State legislatures, and, in addition, declared for the passage of Federal legislation designed to control interstate commerce in products in which home workers are employed.

Housing

The housing policy of the American Federation of Labor was restated, and in furtherance of the national low-rent housing program, the executive council, the legislative committee of the American Federation of Labor, State federations of labor, central labor unions, building-trades councils, and local housing committees were directed to cooperate, under the general direction of the housing committee of the Federation, to insure the success of the national program, and specifically to "follow through on all housing projects suggested, to make sure that they really fulfill local needs as efficiently and directly as possible."

Action on Various Economic Questions

The apprenticeship program inaugurated by the Federal Committee on Apprentice Training was endorsed, and the position of President Roosevelt on vocational education, as expressed in his memorandum (dated August 10, 1937) accompanying the Department of Interior Appropriation Act, for the fiscal year 1937–38, was strongly commended.

The convention again declared, as in 1936, that its "paramount objective" is the 30-hour workweek of 5 six-hour days, to be secured "through legislative enactments and otherwise."

A resolution adopted by the Massachusetts State Federation of Labor, requesting the Secretary of Labor to study the special problems of the older worker in industry, particularly with reference to finding and keeping employment, was endorsed by the convention. Declaring that "the problem is national in scope and demands national action," the resolution requests an investigation of the extent to which age is a factor in determining the efficiency of men and women in

public and private industry; the extent to which pension systems and insurance practices are contributing to the growing tendency to discriminate against older workers; and the "nature and effect of any economic conditions or statutory provisions" which may be producing the same results.

A resolution introduced by delegates from the Brotherhood of Painters, Decorators, and Paperhangers, calling upon the Federal and State Governments to "provide for some form of socialized medicine" that would insure protection "in all cases of sickness, operations, and hospitalization," was referred for study to the special committee instructed to keep in close touch with actual and possible developments in the fields of social security.

The executive council reported the results of a questionnaire sent to affiliated bodies to determine the prevalence of vacations with pay among their membership. These showed that 363,900 employees in private industry were, in 1937, enjoying vacations with pay for periods varying from 1 week to 30 days. The executive council stated that "the year 1937 appears to mark the beginning of a movement for vacations with pay for wage earners." In commenting upon this part of the executive council's report, the convention committee recommended that an extensive educational campaign be promoted by the Federation and its component unions "in the interest of establishing vacations with pay as an accepted principle of employment in industry."

Amendments to A. F. of L. Constitution

The movement which was inaugurated at the Tampa convention of the American Federation of Labor (1936) to strengthen and centralize the executive council's authority over the American Federation of Labor was extended by action of the Denver convention. The constitution was amended in several particulars, the most important of which were those dealing with the control of the president and the executive council over delegate bodies, providing for special conventions and making authoritative decisions arrived at in special convention, and specifically granting power to the executive council "to take such further actions and render such further decisions during the interim of conventions as may become necessary to safeguard and promote the best interest of the Federation and of all its affiliated unions."

Officers, 1937–38

All members of the executive council of the American Federation of Labor were reelected for the ensuing term, without opposition. These officers are: President, William Green; first vice president, Frank Duffy; second vice president, T. A. Rickert; third vice president, Matthew Woll; fourth vice president, John Coefield; fifth vice

president, Arthur O. Wharton; sixth vice president, Joseph N. Weber; seventh vice president, G. M. Bugniazet; eighth vice president, George M. Harrison; ninth vice president, Daniel J. Tobin; tenth vice president, Harry C. Bates; eleventh vice president, Edward J. Gainor; twelfth vice president, W. D. Mahon; thirteenth vice president, Felix H. Knight; fourteenth vice president, George E. Browne; fifteenth vice president, Edward Flore; secretary-treasurer, Frank Morrison.

The fifty-eighth annual convention of the American Federation of Labor will be held in Houston, Tex., in 1938.

MEMBERSHIP OF LABOR ORGANIZATIONS IN CANADA, 1936

THE TOTAL membership of trade-unions in Canada in 1936 was 322,473, an increase of 41,769 over the preceding year. The number of trade-union branches in the latter year was 2,886, an increase of 158 as compared with 1935. The following statistics on the various classes of labor organizations operating in the Dominion are taken from the twenty-sixth annual report on labor organization in Canada for the calendar year 1936.

Number of Branches and Membership of Various Classes of Labor Organizations in Canada, 1936

Classes of labor organizations	Number of main organizations	Number of local branches	Membership
All organizations	114	2,886	322,473
All Canadian organizations	26	990	147,704
All international organizations (comprising international craft organizations affiliated with the Trades and Labor Congress of Canada, and unaffiliated international unions)	88	1,896	174,769
Trades and Labor Congress of Canada	66	1,679	149,398
International craft organizations	62	1,471	136,696
Canadian central bodies	4	110	4,478
Directly chartered unions		98	8,224
All-Canadian Congress of Labor	6	318	31,383
Canadian central bodies [1]	6	276	27,489
Directly chartered unions		42	3,894
Canadian Federation of Labor	6	65	25,081
Canadian central bodies	6	60	25,081
Directly chartered unions		5	
National Catholic unions	1	190	45,000
Other Canadian central bodies [1]	9	149	14,675
Independent local units		60	18,863
Unaffiliated international unions	26	425	38,073
Railway organizations	5	355	22,943
Other international organizations [2]	20	59	10,930
Industrial Workers of the World	1	11	4,200

[1] As question has arisen regarding the affiliation of certain organizations during the calendar year 1936, the following note on each is appended to the above statement:

(1) The Canadian Association of Railwaymen, as at Dec. 31, 1936, had paid per capita tax on its membership for the full calendar year to the A. C. C. L. While now claimed by the C. F. of L., information from documents circulated over the signature of the president indicates that the association at present is not associated with any national organization.

(2) The Amalgamated Building Workers of Canada were still affiliated with the A. C. C. L. as at Dec. 31, 1936, but notified the department on Jan. 13, 1937, that the affiliation of this organization had been transferred to the C. F. of L. Our information is that this decision was reached on January 11 at an executive meeting.

(3) Canadian Brotherhood of Ships' Employees, with three locals and a reported membership of 4,500, according to the information before the department, was not affiliated with either the A. C. C. L. or the C. F. of L., although cooperating with the former, as at Dec. 31, 1936. Consequently this organization is classified with "Other Canadain central bodies."

[2] Not affiliated with the Trades and Labor Congress of Canada.

Union membership in the Dominion in 1936 is shown below by industrial and trade groups. Railroad employees (72,239) constituted 22.40 percent of the total members of all groups listed:

	Members	*Percent*
Mining and quarrying	21, 987	6. 82
Building	32, 446	10. 06
Metal	26, 200	8. 12
Printing and paper making	16, 027	4. 97
Clothing, boots and shoes	23, 285	7. 22
Railroad employees	72, 239	22. 40
Other transportation and navigation	26, 594	8. 25
Public employees, personal service, and amusement	30, 810	9. 56
All other trades and general labor	72, 885	22. 60

Of 88 international organizations with branches or members in the Dominion, 12 had 5,000 or more members in Canada and 5 of these important bodies are composed of employees concerned with railroad operation as shown in the list below:

	Canadian local units	*Canadian membership*
United Mine Workers of America	66	16, 600
Brotherhood of Maintenance-of-Way Employees	194	12, 109
Brotherhood of Railway Carmen of America	112	10, 942
Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen	92	10, 929
International Association of Machinists	77	7, 500
Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America	14	7, 000
Amalgamated Association of Street and Electric Railway and Motor Coach Employees of America	23	6, 769
International Union United Automobile Workers of America	2	6, 000
Brotherhood of Railway and Steamship Clerks, Freight Handlers, Express and Station Employees	88	5, 959
American Federation of Musicians	28	5, 000
International Brotherhood of Pulp, Sulphite, and Paper Mill Workers of the United States and Canada	29	5, 000
Order of Railroad Telegraphers	13	5, 000

Industrial Disputes

TREND OF STRIKES

THE noticeable decline in strikes which has been in evidence since June continued through October, as shown by preliminary estimates based on the limited information available as this issue goes to press. However, the decline from September to October (only 6 percent) was not as marked as in some of the preceding months. And, although the 300 strikes in October indicate a substantial reduction as compared with the spring and early summer months, they constitute a larger number of strikes than has occurred in any October since 1919. The number of workers involved in the strikes beginning in October was about the same as in September. There were, however, about 11 percent fewer man-days of idleness in October.

Trend of Strikes, January 1936 to October 1937 [1]

Year and month	Number of strikes					Workers involved in strikes		Man-days idle during month or year
	Continued from preceding month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	Ended in month	In effect at end of month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	
1936								
Total for year	-------	2,172	-------	-------	-------	788,648	----------	13,901,956
January	84	167	251	149	102	32,406	59,153	635,519
February	102	148	250	131	119	63,056	89,735	748,491
March	119	185	304	174	130	75,191	122,162	1,331,162
April	130	183	313	179	134	65,379	95,526	699,900
May	134	206	340	219	121	72,824	123,030	1,019,171
June	121	188	309	158	151	63,429	133,531	1,327,678
July	151	173	324	197	127	38,017	125,281	1,105,480
August	127	228	355	210	145	68,752	118,268	911,216
September	145	234	379	236	143	65,994	130,875	1,063,100
October	143	192	335	219	116	100,845	148,570	1,053,878
November	116	136	252	126	126	70,116	157,007	1,940,628
December	126	132	258	158	100	72,639	184,859	2,065,733
1937								
January	100	170	270	131	139	108,171	213,818	2,716,161
February	139	209	348	203	145	112,095	239,109	1,519,850
March	145	605	750	503	247	286,775	354,506	3,274,076
April	247	522	769	495	274	220,965	389,979	3,348,302
May	274	574	848	530	318	319,400	436,975	2,937,804
June	318	568	886	554	332	280,708	472,509	4,953,667
July	332	407	739	478	261	139,817	348,718	3,064,178
August	261	400	661	389	272	134,078	229,762	2,253,520
September [1]	272	320	592	357	235	85,000	163,000	1,350,000
October [1]	235	300	535	320	215	85,000	145,000	1,200,000

[1] Strikes involving fewer than 6 workers or lasting less than 1 day are not included in this table, nor in the following tables. Notices or leads regarding strikes are obtained by the Bureau from more than 650 daily papers, labor papers, and trade journals, as well as from all Government labor boards. Letters are written to representatives of parties in the disputes asking for detailed and authentic information. Since answers to some of these letters have not yet been received, the figures given for the late months are not final. This is particularly true with regard to figures for the last 2 months, and these should be considered as preliminary estimates.

As compared with October a year ago, during which month more workers went out on strike than in any other month of 1936, the preliminary estimates for October 1937 show an increase of 56 percent in number of strikes, a decrease of about 16 percent in number of workers involved, and an increase of nearly 14 percent in man-days of idleness.

The figures shown in the preceding table for September and October are subject to change as further information is received. An analysis of strikes in each of these months, based on detailed and verified information, will appear in subsequent issues of the Monthly Labor Review.

ANALYSIS OF STRIKES IN AUGUST 1937 [1]

THE BUREAU has obtained detailed information on 400 strikes which began in August 1937, in which 134,000 workers were involved. These strikes, with the 261 which continued into August from preceding months, made a total of 661 strikes in progress during the month. About 230,000 workers were involved in these strikes and there were approximately 2¼ million man-days of idleness in August as a result.

The strikes in seven industry groups in August accounted for two-thirds of the total number occurring during the month. These groups and the number of strikes in each were as follows: Textiles 63, domestic and personal service 43, transportation and communication 38, trade 36, building and construction 36, lumber 28, and food 26. The most man-days of idleness because of strikes during the month were in the textile and mining industries. The largest strike of the month was the general strike of silk workers in New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania, which began August 9 and was practically over by August 20.

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in August 1937, by Industry*

Industry	Beginning in August		In progress during August		Man-days idle during August
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All industries	**400**	**134,078**	**661**	**229,762**	**2,253,520**
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	12	1,248	23	4,450	61,831
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	2	185	3	235	2,135
Forgings, iron and steel			1	894	19,668
Hardware	1	313	1	313	640
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	3	329	4	579	9,514
Stoves	1	190	4	1,404	11,842
Structural and ornamental metalwork	2	41	4	531	11,952
Tin cans and other tinware	1	93	2	233	5,221
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws) (hand tools)	1	51	1	51	255
Wirework	1	46	3	210	604

[1] Detailed information on a few strikes has not yet been received. (See footnote to preceding table.) Data on missing strikes will be included in the annual report.

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in August 1937, by Industry*—Continued

Industry	Beginning in August		In progress during August		Man-days idle during August
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	**17**	**2,168**	**36**	**5,993**	**53,412**
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	3	519	10	1,314	13,252
Foundry and machine-shop products	6	666	13	2,049	12,719
Machine tools	1	150	2	379	1,366
Radios and phonographs	1	117	2	657	16,497
Other	6	716	9	1,594	9,578
Transportation equipment	**13**	**14,554**	**16**	**30,326**	**113,624**
Automobiles, bodies, and parts	9	14,071	11	14,843	46,114
Locomotives	1	30	1	30	60
Shipbuilding			1	15,000	65,000
Other	3	453	3	453	2,450
Nonferrous metals and their products	**7**	**889**	**9**	**1,752**	**21,248**
Aluminum manufactures	1	26	1	26	130
Clocks and watches and time-recording devices	2	323	2	323	3,134
Jewelry	2	66	2	66	402
Lighting equipment	2	474	2	474	1,896
Stamped and enameled ware			2	863	15,686
Lumber and allied products	**28**	**7,375**	**54**	**15,819**	**177,226**
Furniture	13	2,020	21	4,480	48,587
Millwork and planing	3	191	10	809	10,607
Sawmills and logging camps	7	4,301	9	8,332	87,925
Other	5	863	14	2,198	30,107
Stone, clay, and glass products	**9**	**1,063**	**16**	**3,754**	**41,483**
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	2	87	5	2,258	22,754
Cement			1	239	5,258
Glass	1	18	3	167	3,570
Marble, granite, slate, and other products			1	132	2,904
Pottery	2	433	2	433	2,834
Other	4	525	4	525	4,163
Textiles and their products	**63**	**40,984**	**104**	**51,627**	**554,075**
Fabrics:					
Cotton goods	1	55	4	526	7,692
Dyeing and finishing textiles	3	583	3	583	6,213
Silk and rayon goods	7	31,836	10	32,065	303,373
Woolen and worsted goods	4	816	11	5,884	89,776
Other	3	142	5	684	13,902
Wearing apparel:					
Clothing, men's	2	1,450	2	1,450	18,050
Clothing, women's	20	1,620	30	2,786	25,085
Corsets and allied garments	1	25	1	25	350
Men's furnishings	2	134	3	171	2,126
Hats, caps, and millinery	4	1,155	6	1,525	13,678
Shirts and collars	1	360	2	440	2,480
Hosiery	4	896	9	1,751	21,679
Knitgoods	3	518	7	1,528	24,816
Other	8	1,394	11	2,209	24,855
Leather and its manufactures	**10**	**2,193**	**20**	**3,569**	**38,369**
Boots and shoes	7	2,017	10	2,110	27,004
Leather			5	743	7,758
Other leather goods	3	176	5	716	3,607
Food and kindred products	**26**	**3,089**	**41**	**7,426**	**85,423**
Baking	8	754	15	994	10,290
Beverages	2	636	3	976	8,224
Canning and preserving	3	325	6	1,485	10,310
Confectionery	4	219	5	426	7,701
Flour and grain mills	1	25	2	49	290
Slaughtering and meat packing	4	166	5	1,466	34,429
Sugar refining, cane			1	1,066	5,330
Other	4	964	4	964	8,849
Tobacco manufactures	**4**	**1,794**	**7**	**2,233**	**15,427**
Cigars	2	121	5	560	8,523
Other	2	1,673	2	1,673	6,904
Paper and printing	**10**	**1,274**	**20**	**2,599**	**33,849**
Boxes, paper	3	589	4	615	1,973
Paper and pulp	2	55	3	354	7,994
Printing and publishing:					
Book and job	1	190	3	696	14,888
Newspapers and periodicals	1	236	3	282	3,552
Other	3	204	7	652	5,442

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in August 1937, by Industry*—Continued

Industry	Beginning in August		In progress during August		Man-days idle during August
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
Chemicals and allied products	**3**	**89**	**12**	**3,421**	**39,601**
Chemicals			1	55	935
Druggists' preparations	1	18	1	18	198
Paint and varnishes	2	71	4	746	13,160
Rayon and allied products			1	1,200	4,800
Other			5	1,402	20,508
Rubberproducts	**2**	**572**	**3**	**662**	**5,112**
Other rubber goods	2	572	3	662	5,112
Miscellaneous manufacturing	**20**	**6,648**	**31**	**8,649**	**131,835**
Broom and brush	4	249	4	249	3,665
Furriers and fur factories	1	750	2	1,000	13,000
Other	15	5,649	25	7,400	115,170
Extraction of minerals	**5**	**1,437**	**15**	**24,916**	**337,291**
Coal mining, anthracite	3	1,193	4	6,843	88,746
Coal mining, bituminous	1	16	7	17,468	233,234
Metalliferous mining	1	228	2	282	7,602
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining			1	270	7,020
Other			1	53	689
Transportation and communication	**38**	**14,263**	**49**	**15,493**	**62,977**
Water transportation	17	2,341	20	2,744	9,747
Motortruck transportation	13	10,367	17	10,678	31,988
Motorbus transportation	1	141	2	162	933
Taxicabs and miscellaneous	3	935	6	1,430	19,275
Steam railroad	3	444	3	444	964
Telephone and telegraph	1	35	1	35	70
Trade	**36**	**3,260**	**65**	**10,464**	**196,235**
Wholesale	10	534	17	917	36,482
Retail	26	2,726	48	9,547	159,753
Domestic and personal service	**43**	**5,141**	**66**	**6,385**	**71,799**
Hotels, restaurants, and boarding houses	17	2,420	25	2,624	29,260
Personal service, barbers, beauty parlors			1	10	180
Laundries	13	1,188	22	1,958	26,686
Dyeing, cleaning, and pressing	11	1,185	15	1,423	12,233
Elevator and maintenance workers (when not attached to specific industry)	2	348	3	370	3,440
Professional service	**4**	**339**	**7**	**555**	**4,495**
Recreation and amusement	2	63	4	169	2,844
Professional	1	15	1	15	180
Semiprofessional, attendants, and helpers	1	261	2	371	1,471
Building and construction	**36**	**19,606**	**48**	**21,481**	**149,690**
Buildings, exclusive of P. W. A.	26	17,527	32	18,882	123,702
All other construction (bridges, docks, etc., and P. W. A. buildings)	10	2,079	16	2,599	25,988
Agriculture and fishing	**1**	**400**	**1**	**400**	**6,400**
Fishing	1	400	1	400	6,400
W. P. A., relief, and resettlement projects	**3**	**103**	**4**	**1,977**	**22,851**
Other nonmanufacturing industries	**10**	**5,589**	**14**	**5,811**	**29,267**

The number of strikes (86) in New York during August was more than double the number in any other State. There were 42 in Pennsylvania, 32 in California, 28 in New Jersey, and 23 in Ohio. The strikes in these five States amounted to more than half of the total for the entire country. The States with the most workers involved in strikes and most man-days of idleness during the month were New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Ohio, and Michigan. The largest of the interstate strikes, for which information is shown at the end

of table 2, was the silk strike in New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania referred to above.

TABLE 2.—*Strikes in August 1937, by States*

State	Beginning in August		In progress during August		Man-days idle during August
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All States	400	134,078	661	229,762	2,253,520
Alabama	5	434	7	696	9,306
Arkansas	3	200	6	436	5,989
California	32	5,404	46	7,588	97,586
Colorado			2	553	14,166
Connecticut	9	1,408	12	1,943	16,358
District of Columbia	3	364	4	380	2,354
Florida			2	34	884
Georgia			2	148	3,320
Idaho	1	228	1	228	5,928
Illinois	9	1,248	25	20,963	279,586
Indiana	17	4,001	26	5,600	58,390
Iowa	5	466	7	511	3,519
Kentucky	6	642	10	920	8,065
Louisiana	4	688	5	726	8,175
Maine			2	211	2,498
Maryland	2	171	4	313	2,764
Massachusetts	18	1,392	25	2,492	30,182
Michigan	18	13,888	27	20,330	117,212
Minnesota	7	535	10	1,461	18,832
Mississippi			2	346	4,777
Missouri	16	4,796	26	7,585	107,994
Montana			1	40	1,040
Nebraska			1	210	6,510
New Hampshire			1	125	2,750
New Jersey	28	4,593	49	9,525	100,468
New York	86	27,922	139	38,174	423,326
North Carolina	2	580	2	580	7,240
North Dakota	1	8	1	8	40
Ohio	23	5,069	42	12,835	130,938
Oklahoma	1	45	2	53	409
Oregon	5	3,424	5	3,424	27,358
Pennsylvania	42	18,080	82	32,880	250,210
Rhode Island	4	506	4	506	6,582
Tennessee	3	90	8	960	14,262
Texas	10	804	10	804	9,658
Utah	2	201	2	201	2,558
Virginia	4	475	8	1,780	12,477
Washington	5	1,559	10	2,678	49,779
West Virginia	4	523	7	930	9,794
Wisconsin	16	1,179	24	2,196	27,670
Interstate	9	33,155	12	48,389	372,566

There was an average of 335 workers involved in the 400 strikes beginning in August. In table 3 the strikes in each industry group are classified according to the number of workers involved. About 13 percent of the strikes involved fewer than 20 workers each; 47 percent involved between 20 and 100 workers each; and 31 percent involved between 100 and 500 workers each. Three of the 400 strikes beginning in August involved more than 10,000 workers. These were (1) a short strike (August 4–7) at the Plymouth plant of the Chrysler Corporation in Detroit, Mich., (2) the silk strike referred to before, and (3) a general strike of painters, in Greater New York August 26 to September 14.

TABLE 3.—*Strikes Beginning in August 1937, Classified by Number of Workers Involved*

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes in which the number of workers involved was—						
		6 and under 20	20 and under 100	100 and under 500	500 and under 1,000	1,000 and under 5,000	5,000 and under 10,000	10,000 and over
All industries	400	51	188	124	22	11	1	3
Manufacturing								
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	12	2	6	4	------	------	------	------
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	17	1	6	10	------	------	------	------
Transportation equipment	13	1	5	3	2	1	------	1
Nonferrous metals and their products	7	------	4	3	------	------	------	------
Lumber and allied products	28	2	10	14	1	1	------	------
Stone, clay, and glass products	9	2	4	3	------	------	------	------
Textiles and their products	63	6	32	20	3	1	------	1
Leather and its manufactures	10	------	6	3	------	1	------	------
Food and kindred products	26	3	14	7	2	------	------	------
Tobacco manufacturers	4	1	------	2	------	1	------	------
Paper and printing	10	------	5	5	------	------	------	------
Chemicals and allied products	3	1	2	------	------	------	------	------
Rubber products	2	------	1	------	1	------	------	------
Miscellaneous manufactures	20	2	7	9	1	1	------	------
Nonmanufacturing								
Extraction of minerals	5	1	1	2	1	------	------	------
Transportation and communication	38	3	22	8	2	2	1	------
Trade	36	6	21	7	2	------	------	------
Domestic and personal service	43	7	22	11	3	------	------	------
Professional service	4	2	1	1	------	------	------	------
Building and construction	36	9	12	9	3	2	------	1
Agriculture and fishing	1	------	------	1	------	------	------	------
W. P. A., relief, and resettlement projects	3	1	2	------	------	------	------	------
Other nonmanufacturing industries	10	1	5	2	1	1	------	------

In more than 60 percent of the strikes beginning in August the major issues were union recognition or other union organization matters. These disputes included 68 percent of the total number of workers involved in all strikes. Wages and hours were the major issues in 27 percent of the strikes, including 12 percent of the workers. In 12 percent of the strikes, including 20 percent of the workers, the major issues were union rivalry, jurisdiction, sympathy, and miscellaneous grievances. (See table 4.)

TABLE 4.—*Major Issues Involved in Strikes Beginning in August, 1937*

Major issues	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
All issues	400	100.0	134,078	100.0
Wages and hours	108	27.0	16,126	12.0
Wage increase	76	18.9	12,388	9.2
Wage decrease	5	1.3	884	.7
Wage increase, hour decrease	27	6.8	2,854	2.1
Union organization	243	60.7	91,125	68.0
Recognition	42	10.5	7,594	5.7
Recognition and wages	64	15.9	8,169	6.1
Recognition, wages, and hours	85	21.2	56,177	41.9
Closed shop	34	8.5	5,630	4.2
Discrimination	13	3.3	13,241	9.9
Other	5	1.3	314	.2
Miscellaneous	49	12.3	26,827	20.0
Sympathy	4	1.0	12,935	9.6
Rival unions or factions	15	3.8	9,928	7.4
Jurisdiction	7	1.8	1,282	1.0
Other	21	5.2	2,324	1.7
Not reported	2	.5	358	.3

Of the 661 strikes in progress during August, 389 were terminated during the month. These strikes are classified in table 5 according to industry group and duration. Their average duration was 21 calendar days. Nearly 33 percent lasted less than a week and 42 percent lasted more than a week but less than a month. Only 12 of the strikes had been in progress for 3 months or more. The largest of these was a strike of lumber workers in northern Michigan which began May 18 and continued through August.

TABLE 5.—*Duration of Strikes Ending in August, 1937*

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes with duration of—					
		Less than 1 week	1 week and less than ½ month	½ and less than 1 month	1 and less than 2 months	2 and less than 3 months	3 months or more
All industries	389	126	85	79	70	17	12
Manufacturing							
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	16	5	6	1	3	1	
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	19	4	5	7	3		
Transportation equipment	11	4	3	3		1	
Nonferrous metals and their products	4	3			1		
Lumber and allied products	27	2	7	9	6	1	2
Stone, clay, and glass products	5	2	1	1			1
Textiles and their products	51	9	14	15	8	3	2
Leather and its manufactures	12		2	2	8		
Food and kindred products	25	11	4	6	1	1	2
Tobacco manufactures	4	1	1		2		
Paper and printing	8		1	2	4		1
Chemicals and allied products	10	2	2	1	3		2
Rubber products	2	1				1	
Miscellaneous manufactures	19	5	5	5	2	2	
Nonmanufacturing							
Extraction of minerals	5		1	1	2	1	
Transportation and communication	43	28	5	7	2	1	
Trade	41	14	8	8	7	3	1
Domestic and personal service	36	16	6	4	8	1	1
Professional service	3	1	1	1			
Building and construction	37	13	11	5	7	1	
Agriculture and fishing	1			1			
W. P. A., relief, and resettlement projects	4	2	1		1		
Other nonmanufacturing industries	6	3	1		2		

Government conciliators and labor boards assisted in negotiating settlements of about 43 percent of the strikes ending in August. Nearly 60 percent of the total workers involved were in these strikes. In about 39 percent of the strikes, including a little less than one-fourth of the total number of workers, the settlements were negotiated directly between the employers and representatives of organized workers. Nearly 15 percent of the strikes, including a similar proportion of the total workers involved, were terminated without formal settlements. In most of these cases work was resumed by the employees without any settlement of the issues in dispute or else new workers were employed to fill the places of the strikers.

TABLE 6.—*Methods of Negotiating Settlements of Strikes Ending in August 1937*

Negotiations toward settlements carried on by—	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	389	100.0	159,733	100.0
Employers and workers directly	4	1.0	494	.3
Employers and representatives of organized workers directly	150	38.6	38,059	23.8
Government conciliators or labor boards	167	42.9	94,708	59.4
Private conciliators or arbitrators	8	2.1	2,871	1.8
Terminated without formal settlement	58	14.9	23,526	14.7
Not reported	2	.5	75	(1)

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

In tables 7 and 8 the results of the 389 strikes ending in August are shown. Approximately half of the workers involved obtained substantially all their demands, a third obtained compromises, and the rest gained little or nothing as a result of the strikes. The proportion of successful strikes, from the workers' point of view, was 44 percent of the total. About 32 percent were compromised and 19 percent lost.

The data in table 8, which shows the results of strikes in relation to the major issues involved, indicate that the union-organization strikes were more successful, from the workers' standpoint, than the strikes over wages and hours. The workers won 48 percent, compromised 33 percent, and lost 19 percent of the organization strikes as compared with 42, 39½, and 17½ percent of the wage-and-hour disputes. Fity-one percent of the workers in the organization strikes obtained substantially all of their demands, 30½ percent obtained compromises, and 18½ percent gained little or nothing. In the wage-and-hour strikes 35 percent of the workers won, 52 percent obtained compromises, and 13 percent gained little or nothing.

TABLE 7.—*Results of Strikes Ending in August 1937*

Results	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	389	100.0	159,733	100.0
Substantial gains to workers	171	43.9	78,859	49.3
Partial gains or compromises	126	32.4	50,761	31.8
Little or no gains to workers	73	18.8	24,495	15.3
Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements	14	3.6	4,255	2.7
Not reported	5	1.3	1,363	.9

TABLE 8.—*Results of Strikes Ending in August 1937, in Relation to Major Issues Involved*

Major issues	Totals	Strikes resulting in—				
		Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements	Not reported
	Number of strikes					
All issues	389	171	126	73	14	5
Wages and hours	114	48	45	20	----	1
Wage increase	78	30	30	17	----	1
Wage decrease	5	2	3	----	----	----
Wage increase, hour decrease	31	16	12	3	----	----
Union organization	236	113	78	44	----	1
Recognition	35	15	7	13	----	----
Recognition and wages	68	33	22	13	----	----
Recognition, wages, and hours	80	41	31	7	----	1
Closed shop	34	16	13	5	----	----
Discrimination	15	5	4	6	----	----
Other	4	3	1	----	----	----
Miscellaneous	39	10	3	9	14	3
Sympathy	3	2	----	1	----	----
Rival unions or factions	11	----	----	----	11	----
Jurisdiction	3	----	----	----	3	----
Other	19	8	3	7	----	1
Not reported	3	----	----	1	----	2
	Number of workers involved					
All issues	159,733	78,859	50,761	24,495	4,255	1,363
Wages and hours	15,455	5,356	8,090	1,994	----	15
Wage increase	7,928	2,182	4,087	1,644	----	15
Wage decrease	2,694	446	2,248	----	----	----
Wage increase, hour decrease	4,833	2,728	1,755	350	----	----
Union organization	118,262	60,278	36,032	21,877	----	75
Recognition	4,983	2,353	1,174	1,456	----	----
Recognition and wages	8,498	3,364	3,238	1,896	----	----
Recognition, wages, and hours	65,927	50,467	14,494	891	----	75
Closed shop	23,062	2,743	5,064	15,255	----	----
Discrimination	14,861	430	12,052	2,379	----	----
Other	931	921	10	----	----	----
Miscellaneous	26,016	13,225	6,639	624	4,255	1,273
Sympathy	12,250	12,000	----	250	----	----
Rival unions or factions	4,062	----	----	----	4,062	----
Jurisdiction	193	----	----	----	193	----
Other	8,287	1,225	6,639	363	----	60
Not reported	1,224	----	----	11	----	1,213

CONCILIATION WORK OF THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, OCTOBER 1937

DURING October 1937, conciliators of the Department of Labor were called upon to mediate in 167 disputes which involved directly and indirectly about 94,416 workers. This mediation service was requested by either one or both parties to the disputes. Some of these disputes had already developed into strikes before the Department of Labor was requested to intervene. In others, strikes were threatened but had not yet taken place. In some cases, although

no strike was immediately threatened, a controversy between employer and workers had developed to such a stage that an outside mediator was deemed necessary.

The Department of Labor conciliators were successful in adjusting 93 of these disputes, 50 were pending at the close of the month, 11 were referred to other services, 6 were settled by the disputants themselves before the arrival of the conciliator, and 7 could not be adjusted.

The majority of these disputes concerned demands for wage increases. Many were due to alleged discrimination against union members for union activity, others were for union recognition and selection of sole bargaining agency. Some involved hours, overtime rates of pay, vacation with pay, seniority rights, and general working conditions.

These 167 disputes were scattered among 30 different States and the District of Columbia. Workers involved in the disputes are classified in table 2. Number of strikes 88, controversies 79.

TABLE 1.—*Disputes Handled by Conciliators, October 1937, in Each State*

State	Total disputes		Threatened strikes and controversies		Strikes	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
Alabama	5	578	3	52	2	526
Arkansas	3	535	2	485	1	50
California	5	7,355	3	7,245	2	110
Connecticut	1	250			1	250
District of Columbia	7	1,548	4	746	3	802
Florida	3	28,209	1	150	2	28,059
Georgia	5	1,094	1	490	4	604
Illinois	19	2,011	9	715	10	1,296
Indiana	3	2,480	2	2,250	1	230
Iowa	4	201	3	193	1	8
Louisiana	2	2,040	1	875	1	1,165
Maryland	2	171			2	171
Massachusetts	5	4,140	2	3,800	3	340
Michigan	2	399	1	339	1	60
Minnesota	3	416			3	416
Missouri	3	70	1	20	2	50
Montana	1	45			1	45
New Jersey	2	333			2	333
New York	11	11,766	6	10,963	5	803
North Carolina	5	1,802	2	122	3	1,680
Ohio	13	12,650	7	11,840	6	810
Oregon	1	1,300	1	1,300		
Pennsylvania	25	[1] 5,513	5	[1] 647	20	4,866
Rhode Island	3	485	2	310	1	175
South Dakota	1	1,800	1	1,800		
Texas	2	[1] 150	1	(1)	1	150
Tennessee	6	[1] 2,237	3	[1] 246	3	1,991
Virginia	8	[1] 1,255	7	[1] 1,155	1	100
Washington	1	1,500			1	1,500
West Virginia	11	[1] 1,744	7	1,506	4	[1] 238
Wisconsin	5	339	4	278	1	61
Total	167	[1] 94,416	79	[1] 47,527	88	[1] 46,889

[1] Exact number not known.

TABLE 2.—*Disputes Handled by Conciliators, by Craft of Workers Involved, October 1937*

Craft	Total disputes		Threatened strikes and controversies		Strikes	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
Aluminum workers	1	275	1	275		
Bakery workers	4	717	2	540	2	177
Barbers	1	(1)	1	(1)		
Beverage handlers	2	168	2	168		
Brick and clay workers	2	375	1	225	1	150
Building workers	9	1,529	3	670	6	859
Button makers	2	450			2	450
Cannery workers	1	225	1	225		
Casket makers	1	34			1	34
Cement makers	1	(1)			1	(1)
Chair makers	1	59			1	59
Cigarmakers	1	850	1	850		
Cleaners, dyers	2	425			2	425
Clerks	14	[1] 8,623	11	[1] 8,106	3	[1] 517
Clothing makers	2	1,299			2	1,299
Coopers	1	40			1	40
Culinary workers	1	150			1	150
Drivers	15	[1] 2,754	6	[1] 339	9	2,415
Electrical workers	4	[1] 381	3	381	1	(1)
Engineers	3	401	2	301	1	100
Food handlers	4	2,308	3	2,158	1	150
Furniture workers	7	1,669	3	858	4	811
Glassmakers	1	33			1	33
Hotel workers	6	646	3	190	3	456
Jewelry workers	1	200	1	200		
Laundry workers	13	2,298	5	1,378	8	920
Leather workers	2	347	2	347		
Longshoremen	3	[1] 28,230			3	[1] 28,230
Lumber workers	2	1,570	1	1,300	1	270
Mechanics	10	[1] 3,738	5	[1] 1,627	5	2,111
Metal workers	2	140			2	140
Mine and smelter workers	1	(1)	1	(1)		
Newspaper handlers	2	139			2	139
Paper products	3	353	2	293	1	60
Printing trades	3	2,615	2	2,550	1	65
Rubber workers	1	230			1	230
Ships, ferries	1	25	1	25		
Shoe workers	1	200	1	200		
Steel and iron workers	8	[1] 12,915	4	[1] 11,375	4	1,540
Stone cutters	5	623	1	96	4	527
Street railways	2	[1] 300	2	[1] 300		
Telegraphers	1	[1] 8,000	1	[1] 8,000		
Textile workers	9	6,455	5	4,350	4	2,105
Upholsterers	7	[1] 2,202	1	(1)	6	2,202
Warehousemen	2	254	1	200	1	54
Woodworkers	2	171			2	171
Total	167	[1] 94,416	79	[1] 47,527	88	[1] 46,889

[1] Exact number not known.

Cost of Living

CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING IN THE UNITED STATES, SEPTEMBER 15, 1937

THE cost of living for families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers in 32 large cities of the United States showed an average rise of 0.6 percent during the quarter ending September 15, 1937. This increase reflected a rise in each of the groups of items included in the family budget, with the exception of food, which showed a decline of 0.6 percent.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics index of the cost of all goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in the 32 cities combined, based on average costs in 1923–25 as 100, was 85.0 on September 15, 1937, compared with 84.5 on June 15, 1937. Costs on September 15, 1937, were 3.2 percent higher than a year before and 14.1 percent higher than at the low point in June 1933. They were 14.7 percent lower than in December 1929.

Total costs advanced in 23 of the 32 cities. New York City reported the highest rise, 2.2 percent, largely due to the increase in food costs in that city. Of the nine cities showing declines, the largest, 1.0 percent, occurred in Indianapolis.

Average food costs were lower at the end of the quarter in 26 of the 32 cities covered. In three cities, these costs were more than 5 percent lower at the end than at the beginning of the quarter. In Minneapolis, the index was 6.5 percent lower; in Indianapolis, 6.1 percent; and in Buffalo, 5.3 percent. In all three cities the lower level was due primarily to lower costs for fruits and vegetables. Of the six cities reporting increased food prices, the greatest advances occurred in New York and Boston, where the indexes rose 4.7 and 3.3 percent, respectively, due in large part to the increased cost of beef, pork, milk, and eggs.

For the fourth successive quarter, clothing costs rose in each of the 32 cities. The increase from June to September averaged 2.4 percent. Each city reported an advance of at least 1.0 percent, with the largest increase, 3.9 percent, reported in Atlanta and San Francisco. In Atlanta, the rise was due primarily to increased prices for men's and women's shoes and women's coats; in San Francisco, to an advance in the cost of most items covered in the index, but particularly shoes, suits, and dresses. Increases in prices of men's shoes were reported in each of the 32 cities, and of women's shoes in all cities but one.

Rents actually paid by wage earners and lower-salaried workers increased 1.0 percent, on the average, during the quarter ending September 15, 1937. Slight declines occurred in Portland, Maine, and in Scranton. In each of the other 30 cities, however, increases in rental costs were reported. In three cities, these increases were over 4 percent, reaching 6.0 percent in Seattle, 4.5 percent in Atlanta, and 4.3 percent in Minneapolis.

Fuel and light costs showed an average increase of 1.3 percent, as a result of higher costs in 27 of the 32 cities. The highest rise was noted in Portland, Oreg., due largely to a substantial increase in wood prices, as well as to an increased price for bituminous coal. In Scranton, fuel and light costs increased 5.3 percent as a result of a seasonal rise in the price of anthracite. Three cities, Memphis, Detroit, and Seattle, reported slight declines, while in San Francisco and Houston no change was reported.

Housefurnishing goods increased in cost in 31 of the 32 cities, resulting in an average rise of 1.9 percent. The two cities reporting the largest increases were Baltimore (5.5 percent) and Washington (4.4 percent) with most items showing increases in both cities. The cost of rugs was higher in all 32 cities at the end of this quarter.

The change in the cost of miscellaneous goods was slight, as is generally the case. The average increase was only 0.4 percent, reflecting advanced costs in 27 cities and decreased costs in 5. Cincinnati reported the highest rise, 3.1 percent, due largely to the increased cost of laundry service. All the declines noted were slight.

The cost-of-living indexes presented here show changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers from time to time in each of the 32 large cities covered by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, but they do not measure differences in the cost of these goods from city to city. There are serious technical difficulties in determining the cost of the same level of living from one part of the country to another. No satisfactory techniques have been developed for measuring differences in such costs from large to small cities or from cities to rural communities. In large cities with similar climate, comparisons are possible with the use of standard specifications, but such studies, because of their great expense, are beyond the present resources of this Bureau.

In pricing for the Bureau's indexes, the type of goods priced has been varied from city to city in conformity with the purchasing habits of moderate-income families in each city where prices are secured. Accordingly, although in any one city the kind and quality of goods priced are held constant from year to year insofar as possible, differences between the indexes of the various cities at any particular date are due entirely to differences in the rate of change of living costs in each city. Similarly, the differences in the average costs from which the indexes are computed in different cities may be due to varying

standards and purchasing habits in these cities as well as to varying prices for goods of given grades.

Thus, even though these series furnish no information as to differences in absolute cost in dollars among the 32 cities, the indexes for the various cities may be used to indicate comparative rate of change in the cost of goods purchased by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers. For example, the index of the cost of all items purchased by this group was 79.5 for Los Angeles in September 1937, on the 1923–25 base; that for Washington was 89.7. In other words, in September 1937 costs in Los Angeles were considerably lower, as compared with 1923–25 costs in that city, than were costs in Washington, as compared with 1923–25 costs in the latter city.

The indexes are constructed by pricing, from time to time, a list of the goods most important in the spending of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, as shown by the Bureau's study of the expenditures of 12,096 families in 1917–19.[1] In the construction of the index, price changes, noted from period to period, are weighted according to the importance of these items in family spending, as shown by that study. A new Nation-wide study, now under way, will provide weights more nearly approximating present-day consumption. The field work for this study is completed, and the data secured are now being tabulated and analyzed.

Pending this basic revision in weights, several important revisions in method have been incorporated in the indexes beginning with the March 15, 1935, period. The food and all-items indexes, as well as the indexes for the 32 cities combined, have been revised back to the base years.[2] The pamphlets containing data for July 15, 1935, December 15, 1936, March 15, 1937, and June 15, 1937, together with the current report, present complete revised series.

The prices used in the construction of the food indexes are taken from retail-price quotations secured in 51 cities. Beginning with the year 1935, they cover 84 articles, instead of 42 as in the past. For all goods and services other than food and fuel and light, prices have been secured in 32 cities. Prices of the items included in the food and fuel and light indexes are obtained by mail, all others by personal visits of representatives of the Bureau.

Changes in Cost of Living, September 1937

Percentage changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in 32 large cities of the United States, June 15 to September 15, 1937, are shown in table 1.

[1] The results of this study were published in the Bureau's Bull. No. 357.

[2] For details of this revision, see the article which appeared in the September 1935 Monthly Labor Review: Revision of Index of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers.

TABLE 1.—*Percentage Change from June 15, 1937, to Sept. 15, 1937, in Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers*

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
Average: 32 large cities	+0.6	[1]−0.6	+2.4	+1.0	+1.3	+1.9	+0.4
New England:							
Boston	+1.7	+3.3	+2.2	+.3	+1.0	+2.0	+.1
Portland, Maine	+.1	−1.7	+1.5	−.1	+3.7	+3.8	+.2
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo	−.8	−5.3	+2.6	+.7	+1.6	+1.9	[2]
New York	+2.2	+4.7	+1.8	+.4	+1.4	+2.4	+.4
Philadelphia	+.3	−1.0	+1.8	+1.0	+.5	+2.8	+.2
Pittsburgh	+.3	−.5	+2.1	+.1	+.5	+2.1	+.2
Scranton	−.8	−3.9	+1.7	[3]	+5.3	+1.9	−.4
East North Central:							
Chicago	[2]	−1.5	+2.3	+.5	+3.0	+1.0	−.1
Cincinnati	+.2	−3.7	+2.3	+1.2	+.5	+1.9	+3.1
Cleveland	+.5	−2.2	+3.5	+2.8	+.4	+2.1	[3]
Detroit	−.1	−2.9	+3.0	+1.4	−.2	+1.2	[2]
Indianapolis	−1.0	−6.1	+2.6	+1.6	+.7	+1.3	+.9
West North Central:							
Kansas City	−.9	−4.6	+2.5	+.6	+2.0	+1.7	+.1
Minneapolis	−.7	−6.5	+2.7	+4.3	+1.8	+2.6	+.4
St. Louis	+.4	−2.4	+3.5	+1.9	+2.2	+.9	+1.1
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta	+1.1	−1.3	+3.9	+4.5	+4.3	+1.7	+.2
Baltimore	+.9	−.3	+1.6	+1.8	+3.2	+5.5	+.3
Jacksonville	+.4	−.9	+2.7	+.3	+2.6	+1.5	[2]
Norfolk	+.1	−2.9	+3.3	+.3	+.5	+1.6	+.1
Richmond	+.7	−1.5	+3.7	+2.3	+3.8	+2.1	[2]
Savannah	+1.0	+1.1	+2.6	+.3	+1.2	+1.3	[2]
Washington	+1.1	+.6	+2.1	+.2	+2.3	+4.4	+1.1
East South Central:							
Birmingham	−.1	−2.5	+2.7	+1.2	+2.0	+.6	[2]
Memphis	−.2	−2.7	+2.9	+1.1	−.4	+2.1	−.2
Mobile	+.2	−.9	+1.0	+.3	+1.1	+2.3	+.4
West South Central:							
Houston	+1.4	+1.4	+3.3	+1.4	[4]	+3.8	+.1
New Orleans	+1.2	+1.7	+3.2	+.6	+.1	+2.3	+.1
Mountain:							
Denver	[2]	−3.7	+2.1	+1.5	+.1	+2.1	+2.2
Pacific:							
Los Angeles	+.1	−.8	+1.3	+1.0	+.2	−.9	+.1
Portland, Oreg	+.3	−4.9	+1.5	+3.5	+6.3	+1.1	+2.4
San Francisco	+1.3	−.2	+3.9	+.6	[4]	+3.7	+1.6
Seattle	+.6	−2.7	+2.6	+6.0	−.1	+2.1	+.1

[1] Covers 51 cities.
[2] Increase of less than 0.05 percent.
[3] Decrease of less than 0.05 percent.
[4] No change.

Percentage changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers from a peak point in June 1920, from December 1929, from the low point June 1933, and from September 15, 1936, to September 15, 1937, in 32 cities, are presented in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Percentage Change in Cost of All Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers for Specified Periods*

City	Percentage decrease from—		Percentage increase from—	
	June 1920 to Sept. 15, 1937	December 1929 to Sept. 15, 1937	June 1933 to Sept. 15, 1937	Sept. 15, 1936 to Sept. 15, 1937
Average: 32 large cities	29.9	14.7	14.1	3.2
New England:				
Boston	29.0	14.7	12.9	3.6
Portland, Maine	30.2	12.7	11.5	2.3
Middle Atlantic:				
Buffalo	28.7	15.0	12.8	3.8
New York	26.7	14.6	11.0	2.8
Philadelphia	29.1	15.7	12.4	2.6
Pittsburgh	29.5	15.3	15.9	5.0
Scranton	30.8	17.1	11.1	1.2
East North Central:				
Chicago	30.5	18.5	14.9	3.7
Cincinnati	29.0	14.6	13.9	2.0
Cleveland	27.9	11.2	15.6	3.1
Detroit	35.1	15.0	25.4	4.2
Indianapolis	34.4	15.0	14.6	2.3
West North Central:				
Kansas City	35.3	12.4	12.0	1.9
Minneapolis	29.8	13.1	15.2	1.8
St. Louis	31.2	15.6	14.2	2.4
South Atlantic:				
Atlanta	35.9	13.9	17.6	2.9
Baltimore	26.9	12.3	13.5	2.0
Jacksonville	33.7	14.2	15.7	2.9
Norfolk	33.5	13.6	14.6	2.0
Richmond	31.0	11.9	14.8	1.6
Savannah	35.7	15.7	11.6	2.9
Washington, D. C	26.8	9.3	14.8	2.6
East South Central:				
Birmingham	37.3	17.3	18.3	4.0
Memphis	33.0	14.3	13.3	2.1
Mobile	33.2	16.3	13.6	3.5
West South Central:				
Houston	32.0	14.9	17.3	3.0
New Orleans	27.4	13.9	13.0	3.1
Mountain:				
Denver	31.4	11.2	15.3	2.9
Pacific:				
Los Angeles	28.4	15.4	13.8	4.2
Portland, Oreg	32.7	10.4	18.2	4.8
San Francisco	25.1	11.7	12.7	4.5
Seattle	29.5	11.0	13.5	4.9

Indexes on 1923–25 Base

Indexes of the average cost of goods purchased by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers are constructed for each of the 32 cities surveyed and for these cities combined, using an average of the years 1923–25 as the base. These indexes from 1913 through September 15, 1937, for the 32 cities combined, are shown in table 3. The accompanying chart presents these data in graphic form.

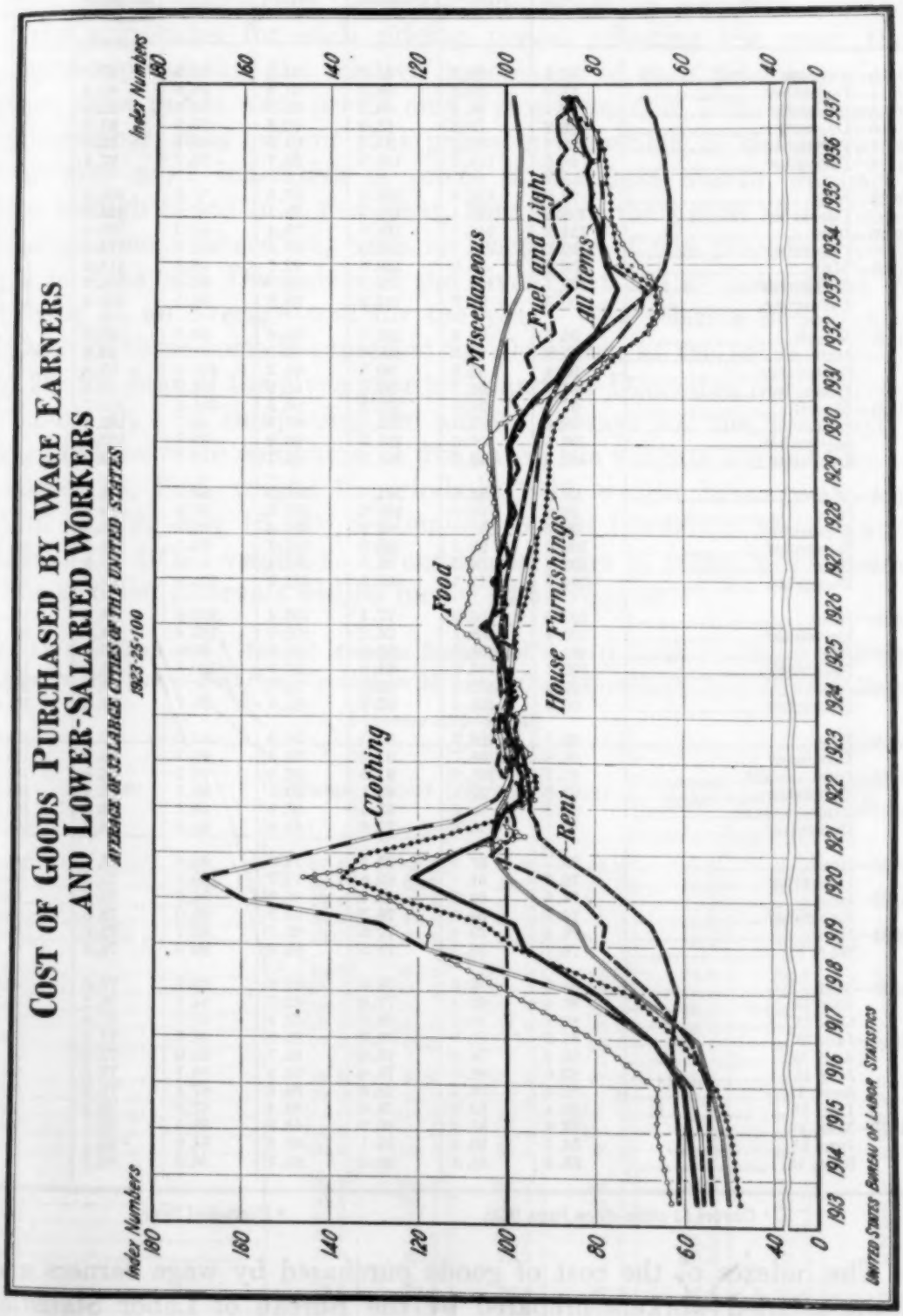

COST OF GOODS PURCHASED BY WAGE EARNERS AND LOWER-SALARIED WORKERS
AVERAGE OF 32 LARGE CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES
1923-25=100
Index Numbers
180
140
120
100
80
60
40
0
Clothing
Food
Miscellaneous
Fuel and Light
All Items
House Furnishings
Rent
1913 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918 1919 1920 1921 1922 1923 1924 1925 1926 1927 1928 1929 1930 1931 1932 1933 1934 1935 1936 1937
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in 32 Large Cities Combined, 1913 Through Sept. 15, 1937*

[Average 1923-25=100]

Date	All items	Food [1]	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
1913—Average	57.4	63.1	55.7	61.4	53.9	47.7	50.1
1914—December	58.9	66.3	56.3	61.4	54.5	49.6	51.6
1915—December	60.1	66.3	58.3	62.3	54.5	52.8	53.9
1916—December	66.9	79.5	66.9	62.8	58.5	61.0	56.8
1917—December	79.4	99.1	83.1	61.5	66.9	71.8	70.4
1918—December	95.8	118.2	118.9	64.7	78.7	97.8	81.9
1919—June	98.2	117.3	128.8	67.3	77.8	104.0	84.3
December	109.8	126.4	159.5	73.1	82.6	123.0	92.9
1920—June	121.2	146.1	168.6	79.4	91.3	137.0	99.2
December	112.2	115.7	151.0	87.5	103.7	132.8	103.2
1921—May	102.8	95.8	129.8	92.7	98.4	114.3	103.2
September	101.7	102.1	112.2	93.3	98.2	103.2	102.5
December	100.3	99.7	107.2	94.8	99.1	100.4	102.0
1922—March	96.8	93.5	102.4	94.6	96.3	95.0	100.4
June	97.0	95.6	100.4	95.0	95.9	93.2	99.5
September	96.4	93.3	99.3	95.2	100.9	93.4	99.2
December	97.7	96.7	99.4	95.8	102.2	96.3	98.9
1923—March	97.6	94.6	100.8	96.3	101.5	100.7	99.0
June	98.6	97.2	101.1	97.3	98.7	102.8	99.1
September	100.1	100.6	101.9	98.2	99.8	102.9	99.6
December	100.2	99.5	101.8	99.7	101.1	102.9	100.0
1924—March	99.0	95.9	101.5	100.2	99.9	102.1	99.7
June	98.9	96.0	100.6	101.3	97.6	99.4	99.8
September	99.2	97.3	99.5	101.4	98.9	98.6	99.8
December	100.0	99.5	98.9	101.7	99.5	99.1	100.2
1925—June	101.4	104.2	98.5	101.4	97.9	97.9	100.8
December	104.0	111.1	97.9	101.3	105.8	97.8	101.1
1926—June	102.5	108.9	97.1	100.4	100.0	95.8	101.0
December	102.3	108.1	96.2	100.0	103.4	94.7	101.4
1927—June	101.9	108.7	95.3	99.0	99.4	93.4	101.7
December	100.4	104.7	94.0	97.9	100.6	93.0	102.1
1928—June	99.2	102.5	93.8	96.5	97.7	91.1	102.1
December	99.4	103.2	93.3	95.5	99.7	90.5	102.8
1929—June	99.1	103.7	92.8	94.3	97.0	90.2	103.0
December	99.6	105.7	92.2	93.3	99.1	89.9	103.4
1930—June	97.7	101.2	91.5	92.0	95.9	88.8	103.7
December	93.8	92.1	88.1	90.1	98.1	85.1	103.4
1931—June	88.3	80.6	83.4	87.3	93.7	79.3	102.8
December	85.1	76.2	77.6	83.9	95.3	74.9	101.8
1932—June	79.7	67.6	73.5	78.5	88.8	68.4	100.4
December	76.6	64.7	69.5	72.7	89.8	65.6	98.8
1933—June	74.5	64.9	68.4	66.8	84.9	65.8	96.4
December	77.2	69.6	76.2	63.9	90.0	73.5	96.8
1934—June	78.4	73.4	77.9	62.7	87.7	75.0	96.6
Nov. 15	79.1	75.3	77.8	62.7	89.0	75.5	96.7
1935—Mar. 15	80.6	79.8	78.0	62.6	89.3	76.0	96.8
July 15	80.4	80.2	77.8	62.7	84.9	76.2	96.7
Oct. 15	80.7	80.2	78.0	63.3	87.7	77.0	96.6
1936—Jan. 15	81.3	81.6	78.3	63.5	88.3	77.0	96.6
Apr. 15	80.6	79.4	78.6	63.7	88.0	77.3	96.5
July 15	82.0	84.0	78.4	64.2	86.1	77.5	96.4
Sept. 15	82.4	84.3	78.6	64.6	87.4	78.2	96.5
Dec. 15	82.4	82.9	79.6	65.4	87.8	79.2	96.8
1937—Mar. 15	83.8	85.4	80.9	65.9	88.1	83.1	97.3
June 15	84.5	86.3	82.1	67.5	84.9	[2] 85.1	97.7
Sept. 15	85.0	85.8	84.0	68.1	86.0	86.7	98.1

[1] Covers 51 cities since June 1920.

[2] Corrected figure.

The indexes of the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics show relative costs as of particular dates. For various purposes, however, it is often necessary to have estimates of annual average indexes. These estimates are, therefore, presented in table 4, for 32

cities combined, from 1913 through 1936. The annual average indexes have been computed as follows: The annual average food index is an average of the indexes falling within each year; the annual average indexes for clothing, rent, fuel and light, housefurnishing goods, and miscellaneous items are indexes of the weighted average of the aggregates for each pricing period affecting the year, the weights representing the relative importance of each pricing period. When these goods were priced only twice a year, in June and again in December, it is evident that prices in December of the previous year were more indicative of prices in the next month, January, even though it fell in a new year, than were the prices of the succeeding June. Therefore, costs in December of the preceding year and in June and December of the given year are all considered in arriving at an average cost for the year. The relative importance of each of these costs is expressed for December of the previous year by 2½; for June of the given year by 6; and for December of the given year by 3½. In computing the annual average for the year 1936, when indexes were computed at five dates, the weights are as follows: October 15, 1935, weight 1; periods in 1936, weight January 15, 47; April 15, 72; July 15, 60; September 15, 60; December 15, 47; and March 15, 1937, weight 1. Weights for years in which pricing was done at other intervals will be furnished on request.

TABLE 4.—*Estimated* [1] *Annual Average Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in 32 Large Cities Combined, 1913 Through 1936*

[Average 1923–25=100]

Year	All items	Food [2]	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
1913	57.4	63.1	55.7	61.4	53.9	47.7	50.1
1914	58.5	65.3	56.1	61.4	54.3	49.0	51.2
1915	59.5	66.3	57.4	61.9	54.5	51.3	52.8
1916	63.8	73.4	62.9	62.6	56.6	57.2	55.5
1917	73.7	90.1	75.6	62.1	63.0	66.9	64.2
1918	88.2	109.4	102.5	63.2	73.3	85.9	76.7
1919	101.1	120.2	135.7	68.4	79.4	108.2	86.3
1920	116.2	133.1	161.6	80.4	93.1	132.8	99.1
1921	103.6	101.6	124.4	92.4	99.3	111.8	102.8
1922	97.2	95.0	101.0	95.1	98.6	94.8	99.7
1923	99.0	97.9	101.2	97.5	100.3	101.8	99.3
1924	99.2	96.9	100.4	101.0	99.1	100.1	99.9
1925	101.8	105.0	98.4	101.5	100.6	98.1	100.8
1926	102.6	108.5	97.0	100.5	102.2	95.9	101.1
1927	100.6	104.5	95.1	98.9	100.6	93.6	101.7
1928	99.5	103.3	93.7	96.5	98.9	91.3	102.3
1929	99.5	104.7	92.7	94.3	98.2	90.2	103.1
1930	97.0	99.6	90.7	91.7	97.2	87.9	103.5
1931	88.6	82.0	82.7	86.9	95.1	79.2	102.7
1932	79.8	68.3	73.2	78.0	90.4	68.9	100.2
1933	75.8	66.4	70.9	67.2	87.4	68.0	97.0
1934	78.6	74.0	77.5	62.9	88.6	74.9	96.7
1935	80.7	80.4	77.9	62.9	87.5	76.4	96.7
1936	81.6	82.1	78.7	64.2	87.5	77.8	96.5

[1] For explanation of method used, see above.

[2] Covers 51 cities since June 1920.

Table 5 presents September 15, 1937, indexes of living costs for families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers based on average costs in the years 1923–25 as 100, for each of the 32 cities, by groups of items.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers, by Groups of Items, Sept. 15, 1937*

[Average 1923-25=100]

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
Average: 32 large cities	85.0	[1] 85.8	84.0	68.1	86.0	[2] 86.7	98.1
New England:							
Boston	86.5	84.0	88.7	75.7	82.9	86.0	99.7
Portland, Maine	87.7	85.4	83.2	76.1	82.9	92.9	103.6
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo	86.4	82.7	83.4	73.1	97.6	96.1	99.1
New York	86.7	87.6	83.3	76.3	85.3	80.9	98.6
Philadelphia	84.3	88.2	78.7	68.0	80.3	85.1	95.4
Pittsburgh	84.9	84.0	83.0	69.2	101.0	87.2	96.3
Scranton	84.2	81.2	84.8	73.1	74.5	93.1	97.0
East North Central:							
Chicago	[2] 81.3	87.6	76.8	56.4	90.6	77.6	[2] 100.9
Cincinnati	89.1	87.2	83.6	77.1	95.8	96.9	100.8
Cleveland	86.9	84.9	87.4	68.2	100.4	84.9	101.9
Detroit	82.3	86.4	84.3	66.1	77.2	84.9	93.6
Indianapolis	83.6	84.7	82.0	64.6	83.9	90.7	93.6
West North Central:							
Kansas City	84.5	87.0	83.3	60.6	83.7	81.4	100.1
Minneapolis	86.0	88.0	82.2	70.5	90.9	91.0	97.5
St. Louis	85.8	90.1	84.8	58.1	87.5	92.2	102.1
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta	[2] 83.9	[2] 82.4	87.2	65.3	73.4	[2] 94.1	94.8
Baltimore	88.2	88.8	83.3	74.8	80.9	86.9	104.6
Jacksonville	82.4	81.6	84.5	58.1	90.9	84.7	93.0
Norfolk	86.9	83.5	91.1	62.7	80.0	88.8	103.9
Richmond	86.9	80.5	91.8	72.8	81.8	95.7	99.7
Savannah	83.3	85.2	87.6	60.8	84.8	89.9	92.3
Washington	89.7	87.6	84.7	88.2	82.6	92.2	98.6
East South Central:							
Birmingham	79.5	78.2	91.1	53.7	81.5	83.7	91.8
Memphis	82.9	81.2	89.8	59.3	88.6	96.2	94.9
Mobile	85.1	80.9	90.6	64.1	70.9	92.6	99.6
West South Central:							
Houston	84.0	82.6	79.3	72.3	73.8	95.4	94.7
New Orleans	85.2	87.3	83.5	71.5	76.5	97.4	91.7
Mountain:							
Denver	85.8	89.7	80.7	63.7	77.8	93.4	100.6
Pacific:							
Los Angeles	79.5	78.8	86.7	53.6	82.3	82.7	92.9
Portland, Oreg	85.9	85.6	84.0	61.9	86.7	86.0	101.7
San Francisco	88.6	85.8	94.3	72.5	79.4	90.1	102.2
Seattle	88.6	84.2	92.0	70.8	95.0	94.0	99.9

[1] Covers 51 cities.

[2] Corrected indexes for June 15, on the 1923–25 base: Average 32 large cities—"housefurnishing goods" from 85.0 to 85.1; Chicago—"all items" from 81.3 to 81.2, "miscellaneous" from 101.5 to 101.0; Atlanta—"all items" from 82.7 to 83.0; "food" from 82.8 to 83.5; "housefurnishing goods" from 91.0 to 92.5.

Table 6 presents indexes of the cost of all goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in each of the 32 cities, for each date from June 1926 through September 15, 1937, on the 1923–25 base. It is planned to publish these indexes for each group of items in each December report, and to publish only the indexes of the cost of all goods in the March, June, and September reports. If indexes by groups of items are needed for any one of the 32 cities, the Bureau of Labor Statistics will be glad to furnish them.

TABLE 6.—*Indexes of Cost of All Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Each of 32 Large Cities, June 1926 Through Sept. 15, 1937*

[Average 1923-25=100]

Date	New England		Middle Atlantic					East North Central
	Boston	Portland, Maine	Buffalo	New York	Philadelphia	Pittsburgh	Scranton	Chicago
1926—June	102.5	102.0	104.6	102.4	104.8	103.6	104.1	102.9
December	103.5	101.8	103.7	102.7	104.5	103.2	103.8	102.9
1927—June	101.9	101.7	103.3	101.8	103.3	103.0	103.5	102.6
December	102.2	100.4	101.7	102.5	102.2	101.3	102.4	100.2
1928—June	99.5	98.9	101.5	100.3	101.0	99.9	101.7	99.0
December	100.9	100.0	101.0	101.1	99.6	101.0	101.9	99.3
1929—June	99.6	99.7	101.3	100.7	99.2	100.8	101.4	98.9
December	101.4	100.4	101.7	101.5	99.9	100.2	101.6	99.7
1930—June	98.7	98.4	100.3	98.8	97.6	98.6	99.0	97.8
December	95.9	95.4	95.6	96.5	94.3	93.8	95.2	93.5
1931—June	89.4	90.9	90.0	91.2	89.7	88.4	88.7	88.0
December	87.2	88.1	85.7	88.1	86.3	84.7	85.5	84.4
1932—June	80.5	83.5	82.3	84.2	80.4	78.7	80.1	77.1
December	78.6	79.9	78.4	81.0	76.8	76.0	78.0	73.4
1933—June	76.6	78.6	76.6	78.1	74.9	73.2	75.8	70.7
December	79.7	82.5	78.8	80.5	78.4	76.0	80.0	72.4
1934—June	81.3	83.6	80.2	81.8	79.9	77.7	80.8	72.7
Nov. 15	82.0	84.4	79.9	82.1	79.6	77.8	80.6	73.5
1935—Mar. 15	82.9	84.6	81.6	83.6	80.4	79.2	81.9	76.2
July 15	82.7	85.2	82.0	83.1	80.4	79.1	82.1	76.0
Oct. 15	82.9	85.0	81.6	83.4	80.9	79.6	82.8	76.1
1936—Jan. 15	83.0	85.3	82.5	84.2	81.9	79.9	83.2	76.7
Apr. 15	82.6	84.7	81.8	83.0	81.3	79.1	81.8	76.2
July 15	84.2	86.5	84.1	83.8	82.1	80.7	83.2	77.6
Sept. 15	83.5	85.7	83.3	84.4	82.1	80.8	83.2	78.4
Dec. 15	83.3	85.8	83.8	84.3	82.5	80.8	83.7	78.5
1937—Mar. 15	84.2	86.6	84.9	85.1	83.4	82.1	84.0	80.0
June 15	85.1	87.6	87.1	84.9	84.0	84.6	84.9	[1] 81.2
Sept. 15	86.5	87.7	86.4	86.7	84.3	84.9	84.2	81.3

Date	East North Central—Continued				West North Central			South Atlantic
	Cincinnati	Cleveland	Detroit	Indianapolis	Kansas City	Minneapolis	St. Louis	Atlanta
1926—June	105.4	102.6	101.4	101.9	101.5	102.5	104.2	102.7
December	104.6	101.8	100.4	101.2	99.6	100.9	103.7	100.9
1927—June	106.5	102.0	100.6	102.3	99.5	101.1	104.1	103.1
December	102.3	99.4	97.5	98.4	96.1	98.2	100.8	98.1
1928—June	102.8	99.2	96.2	98.0	96.2	98.5	100.2	99.0
December	102.0	98.1	96.3	97.4	95.6	97.6	99.8	98.7
1929—June	103.4	98.6	97.1	97.4	95.5	97.9	100.8	97.6
December	104.4	97.8	96.9	98.4	96.5	99.0	101.6	97.4
1930—June	103.0	97.8	94.6	97.1	95.1	98.0	99.5	94.0
December	98.8	93.3	88.3	91.9	92.6	94.0	94.7	89.9
1931—June	92.8	87.3	82.4	85.3	88.9	89.6	88.5	84.4
December	89.3	84.3	77.2	81.7	85.1	86.6	84.0	79.8
1932—June	82.9	80.5	71.6	77.0	79.0	80.9	79.5	75.9
December	79.7	76.4	67.9	73.9	76.9	78.2	76.4	71.9
1933—June	78.3	75.2	65.7	73.0	75.5	74.6	75.1	71.3
December	80.5	77.2	69.1	75.5	76.7	78.2	77.0	74.7
1934—June	81.7	78.6	71.5	77.0	77.9	79.2	78.7	75.8
Nov. 15	82.2	78.8	71.9	76.5	79.2	79.6	79.4	77.1
1935—Mar. 15	85.1	81.3	74.2	78.9	80.4	81.3	81.4	78.4
July 15	84.0	81.4	75.1	78.8	79.5	81.5	81.6	78.3
Oct. 15	84.5	81.5	75.9	79.1	80.1	81.3	81.2	79.6
1936—Jan. 15	85.2	81.7	76.7	79.8	80.2	82.6	82.1	79.9
Apr. 15	84.3	81.7	77.0	79.2	79.6	81.8	81.4	79.0
July 15	87.2	83.4	78.9	81.4	81.9	83.9	82.8	80.6
Sept. 15	87.4	84.3	79.0	81.8	82.9	84.5	83.8	81.5
Dec. 15	86.2	83.8	78.8	81.5	82.0	84.7	82.9	81.3
1937—Mar. 15	88.6	85.4	80.9	83.5	84.1	86.8	84.7	82.4
June 15	89.0	86.5	82.5	84.5	85.3	86.6	85.4	[1] 83.0
Sept. 15	89.1	86.9	82.3	83.6	84.5	86.0	85.8	83.9

[1] Corrected figure.

TABLE 6.—*Indexes of Cost of All Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Each of 32 Large Cities, June 1926 Through Sept. 15, 1937*—Continued

Date	South Atlantic—Continued						East South Central	
	Baltimore	Jacksonville	Norfolk	Richmond	Savannah	Washington, D. C.	Birmingham	Memphis
1926—June	103.4	109.0	101.7	104.7	102.4	103.2	103.0	100.8
December	102.5	107.7	101.4	102.9	101.6	102.5	102.1	100.0
1927—June	102.1	104.8	102.3	103.0	101.1	100.5	100.7	99.9
December	100.1	102.0	100.3	99.7	100.0	99.5	100.0	97.1
1928—June	100.1	98.7	99.6	100.0	99.2	99.1	98.2	96.5
December	99.1	98.2	99.9	98.5	99.8	98.6	97.5	97.0
1929—June	99.7	97.2	99.7	97.7	99.0	99.0	96.9	97.1
December	100.5	96.1	100.6	98.6	98.9	98.9	96.1	96.7
1930—June	99.5	94.1	98.8	98.1	96.9	97.4	94.2	96.0
December	95.8	90.6	95.4	93.5	93.2	94.7	89.3	91.3
1931—June	90.8	85.4	89.8	88.2	89.3	89.6	80.7	85.3
December	87.9	81.2	86.2	85.6	84.3	87.0	76.9	82.1
1932—June	82.7	76.3	81.2	80.3	79.1	82.0	70.9	77.0
December	79.9	73.5	78.7	77.1	76.7	79.1	68.5	73.8
1933—June	77.7	71.3	75.9	75.7	74.6	78.1	67.2	73.1
December	81.4	75.5	80.9	79.9	78.3	81.8	70.2	76.1
1934—June	82.0	76.6	82.5	80.9	78.9	83.0	71.0	77.0
Nov. 15	82.9	77.2	82.9	81.7	79.4	83.9	73.4	78.8
1935—Mar. 15	83.9	77.8	83.9	82.9	80.0	85.3	73.6	79.5
July 15	84.5	78.6	83.5	82.7	80.3	85.6	74.1	78.6
Oct. 15	84.9	78.9	84.1	83.6	81.2	86.3	75.3	78.7
1936—Jan. 15	85.6	79.4	84.9	83.6	81.2	86.7	75.0	79.4
Apr. 15	85.0	78.5	83.7	82.8	79.4	85.5	73.9	79.3
July 15	86.0	80.2	84.8	84.3	80.7	87.0	76.0	80.5
Sept. 15	86.4	80.1	85.2	85.5	81.0	87.4	76.5	81.1
Dec. 15	86.4	80.4	85.7	86.0	81.1	87.6	76.4	81.5
1937—Mar. 15	87.0	81.5	86.5	86.5	81.8	87.8	78.7	82.8
June 15	87.4	82.1	86.8	86.3	82.5	88.7	79.6	83.0
Sept. 15	88.2	82.4	86.9	86.9	83.3	89.7	79.5	82.9

Date	East South Central—Contd.	West South Central		Mountain	Pacific			
	Mobile	Houston	New Orleans	Denver	Los Angeles	Portland, Oreg.	San Francisco	Seattle
1926—June	103.8	99.9	100.0	101.2	96.7	99.4	101.1	101.2
December	104.0	100.4	101.0	100.2	96.9	99.1	101.3	100.6
1927—June	103.6	98.3	101.2	100.7	97.0	98.9	101.5	101.6
December	102.4	98.6	99.9	96.4	95.5	97.3	100.6	98.8
1928—June	101.4	96.7	98.8	95.9	93.2	95.7	99.6	98.4
December	101.8	97.6	99.6	96.3	95.1	96.3	100.9	98.6
1929—June	101.0	97.4	98.3	96.6	94.1	95.1	100.1	99.2
December	101.6	98.6	98.9	96.7	94.0	95.8	100.4	99.6
1930—June	99.9	96.1	96.7	95.5	91.7	95.0	98.3	98.8
December	95.5	91.3	92.6	91.1	88.1	89.6	95.0	93.4
1931—June	88.9	86.0	85.1	86.5	82.4	85.5	89.8	90.4
December	85.3	83.4	84.5	82.9	80.7	82.9	86.9	87.3
1932—June	79.1	76.2	79.3	78.2	75.5	77.4	82.4	82.0
December	77.0	72.2	77.6	75.5	73.1	75.2	80.7	78.6
1933—June	74.9	71.6	75.4	74.5	69.8	72.7	78.7	78.1
December	79.2	75.5	79.1	76.1	72.5	74.4	81.8	79.2
1934—June	79.1	75.8	79.1	77.8	72.1	75.5	82.5	79.6
Nov. 15	81.0	78.3	81.0	79.0	74.2	77.5	84.5	80.9
1935—Mar. 15	82.2	79.3	82.0	81.2	75.5	78.8	84.8	82.2
July 15	81.7	78.3	81.9	81.2	74.6	78.8	83.2	82.3
Oct. 15	82.1	79.4	81.4	80.8	74.8	79.3	84.0	82.2
1936—Jan. 15	81.7	80.3	81.7	81.5	75.4	80.7	84.5	83.6
Apr. 15	81.0	79.5	80.8	81.1	74.7	80.8	84.0	83.2
July 15	82.7	80.9	82.2	83.0	75.2	82.0	84.5	84.1
Sept. 15	82.2	81.5	82.6	83.4	76.3	81.9	84.8	84.5
Dec. 15	82.1	81.9	83.0	83.1	77.1	82.5	84.9	84.8
1937—Mar. 15	84.2	83.2	84.0	85.0	79.8	85.0	86.8	87.3
June 15	84.9	82.8	84.2	85.9	79.4	85.6	87.5	88.1
Sept. 15	85.1	84.0	85.2	85.8	79.5	85.9	88.6	88.6

Indexes on 1913 Base for the 32 Cities Combined

Indexes of the average cost of goods purchased by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers in 32 cities combined, from December 1914 through September 15, 1937, are presented in table 7. The indexes presented in this table are based on average costs in 1913 as 100, to provide comparability with figures presented in earlier pamphlets.

TABLE 7.—*Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in 32 Large Cities Combined, December 1914 Through Sept. 15, 1937*

[1913=100]

Date	All items	Food [1]	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
1914—December	102.7	105.0	101.0	100.0	101.0	104.0	103.0
1915—December	104.7	105.0	104.7	101.5	101.0	110.6	107.4
1916—December	116.6	126.0	120.0	102.3	108.4	127.8	113.3
1917—December	138.3	157.0	149.1	100.1	124.1	150.6	140.5
1918—December	166.9	187.3	213.4	105.3	146.0	205.0	163.3
1919—June	171.1	185.9	231.1	109.6	144.2	218.0	168.0
December	191.4	200.4	286.3	119.0	153.1	257.8	185.4
1920—June	211.3	231.6	302.6	129.2	169.3	287.2	197.8
December	195.6	183.3	271.1	142.5	192.2	278.3	205.8
1921—May	179.1	151.8	233.0	151.0	182.4	239.7	205.8
September	177.2	161.7	201.3	151.9	182.0	216.3	204.4
December	174.9	157.9	192.5	154.4	183.8	210.5	203.4
1922—March	168.8	148.1	183.8	154.1	178.6	199.1	200.1
June	169.0	151.5	180.3	154.6	177.7	195.5	198.4
September	168.0	147.9	178.2	154.9	187.1	195.8	197.9
December	170.3	153.2	178.4	156.0	189.5	201.8	197.3
1923—March	170.0	149.9	181.0	156.8	188.1	211.0	197.5
June	171.8	154.0	181.4	158.4	182.9	215.5	197.6
September	174.5	159.4	182.9	159.9	185.0	215.7	198.6
December	174.7	157.7	182.8	162.3	187.4	215.6	199.4
1924—March	172.5	151.9	182.2	163.2	185.2	214.0	198.9
June	172.3	152.1	180.6	164.9	181.0	208.4	199.1
September	172.9	154.1	178.7	165.1	183.3	206.7	199.1
December	174.3	157.7	177.5	165.6	184.5	207.7	199.8
1925—June	176.7	165.1	176.9	165.1	181.6	205.2	201.1
December	181.3	176.1	175.8	165.0	196.2	205.0	201.6
1926—June	178.7	172.6	174.2	163.5	185.4	200.9	201.5
December	178.3	171.3	172.7	162.8	191.6	198.6	202.1
1927—June	177.7	172.2	171.0	161.1	184.3	195.8	202.8
December	175.0	165.8	168.7	159.4	186.6	195.0	203.7
1928—June	172.8	162.4	168.4	157.2	181.2	191.0	203.6
December	173.2	163.6	167.4	155.5	184.9	189.8	205.0
1929—June	172.7	164.3	166.6	153.5	179.8	189.1	205.4
December	173.7	167.5	165.6	151.9	183.8	188.4	206.1
1930—June	170.3	160.4	164.3	149.8	177.8	186.1	206.8
December	163.6	145.9	158.1	146.7	181.8	178.4	206.3
1931—June	153.9	127.7	149.7	142.1	173.8	166.2	205.0
December	148.3	120.8	139.3	136.6	176.6	156.9	203.1
1932—June	138.9	107.2	131.9	127.8	164.6	143.4	200.2
December	133.5	102.6	124.7	118.4	166.5	137.5	197.1
1933—June	129.8	102.8	122.8	108.7	157.4	137.8	192.3
December	134.6	110.3	136.7	104.0	166.9	154.1	193.0
1934—June	136.6	116.3	139.8	102.1	162.5	157.2	192.7
Nov. 15	137.8	119.4	139.7	102.0	165.1	158.3	192.9
1935—Mar. 15	140.4	126.4	139.9	101.8	165.5	159.4	193.1
July 15	140.1	127.1	139.6	102.1	157.4	159.8	192.8
Oct. 15	140.7	127.1	140.1	103.1	162.6	161.4	192.6
1936—Jan. 15	141.7	129.4	140.5	103.3	163.8	161.4	192.6
Apr. 15	140.6	125.8	141.0	103.7	163.1	162.0	192.5
July 15	143.0	133.1	140.7	104.5	159.6	162.3	192.2
Sept. 15	143.6	133.7	141.1	105.2	162.0	163.8	192.4
Dec. 15	143.6	131.4	142.9	106.5	162.8	166.0	193.0
1937—Mar. 15	146.0	135.3	145.3	107.3	163.3	174.2	194.0
June 15	147.4	136.8	147.3	109.8	157.4	[2] 178.3	[2] 194.8
Sept. 15	148.2	136.0	150.8	110.9	159.5	181.7	195.5

[1] Covers 51 cities since June 1920.

[2] Corrected figure.

Changes in Living Costs From December 1914 and December 1917

Data on changes in living costs from December 1914 for 19 cities and from December 1917 for the other 13 cities, to each subsequent pricing date through June 15, 1937, were presented in the reports on Changes in Cost of Living, July 15, 1935 (Serial No. R. 258), December 15, 1936 (Serial No. R. 510), March 15, 1937 (Serial No. R. 555), and June 15, 1937 (Serial No. R. 605). For the convenience of those who wish to use these series, brought up to date, tables 8 and 9 present changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers from December 1914 for 19 cities and from December 1917 for the other 13 cities, to September 15, 1937. Complete series are therefore available for all cities by reference to the July 15, 1935, December 15, 1936, March 15, 1937, and June 15, 1937, reports, together with the current report. The data can, of course, be converted into index numbers on the December 1914 base for 19 cities and on the December 1917 base for the other cities by adding 100 to each figure representing an increase and by subtracting from 100 each figure representing a decrease.

TABLE 8.—*Changes in Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in 19 Large Cities, December 1914 to Sept. 15, 1937*

City	Percentage increase or decrease over December 1914 in the cost of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
New England:							
Boston	+44.5	+26.6	+69.2	+12.3	+61.1	+107.3	+87.9
Portland, Maine	+45.2	+34.2	+46.2	−2.6	+63.7	+110.7	+94.7
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo	+56.3	+31.4	+51.5	+27.4	+112.7	+113.6	+101.1
New York	+54.1	+35.6	+66.3	+25.3	+66.7	+79.2	+111.5
Philadelphia	+48.3	+31.6	+46.3	+15.0	+55.8	+73.4	+104.3
East North Central:							
Chicago	+44.7	+39.3	+31.0	+12.5	+42.6	+74.6	+91.9
Cleveland	+57.7	+30.0	+53.5	+20.5	+145.7	+85.7	+115.6
Detroit	+53.3	+35.0	+51.8	+32.7	+43.4	+69.6	+110.9
South Atlantic:							
Baltimore	+56.4	+40.8	+49.0	+28.0	+53.5	+96.5	+116.6
Jacksonville	+39.0	+17.7	+68.2	−21.1	+55.8	+99.5	+84.2
Norfolk	+56.0	+20.0	+61.5	+3.1	+60.6	+77.4	+111.2
Savannah	+29.8	+7.4	+56.3	−12.0	+37.5	+107.6	+64.0
Washington, D. C.	+43.1	+36.4	+50.4	+19.8	+20.8	+106.5	+72.2
East South Central:							
Mobile	+38.7	+20.6	+38.6	−9.2	+35.9	+93.3	+92.6
West South Central:							
Houston	+40.9	+28.2	+57.3	−2.2	+6.0	+133.7	+79.9
Pacific:							
Los Angeles	+42.8	+16.9	+57.0	+3.7	+17.2	+99.9	+90.3
Portland, Oreg.	+35.9	+25.2	+34.1	−11.8	+39.3	+75.5	+78.3
San Francisco	+41.9	+27.1	+80.5	−.7	+19.6	+93.6	+80.0
Seattle	+51.1	+23.3	+61.7	+15.7	+50.5	+127.8	+94.7

The indexes of living costs presented in this pamphlet can be converted to other bases. If indexes for any one of the 32 cities or for the cities combined, on bases other than those presented in this pamphlet, are desired, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor, Washington, D. C., will prepare them.

TABLE 9.—*Changes in Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in 13 Large Cities, December 1917 to Sept. 15, 1937*

City	Percentage increase or decrease over December 1917 in the cost of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
Middle Atlantic:							
Pittsburgh	+6.2	−15.7	−6.2	+15.8	+83.6	+12.2	+40.2
Scranton	+8.2	−15.1	+3.1	+20.2	+29.2	+24.5	+48.5
East North Central:							
Cincinnati	+7.5	−14.0	−12.3	+13.4	+46.3	+19.8	+49.5
Indianapolis	+2.7	−16.4	−9.0	−6.2	+22.0	+10.6	+41.4
West North Central:							
Kansas City	−.4	−17.0	−5.9	−9.4	+12.9	−3.7	+35.2
Minneapolis	+3.6	−10.2	−11.9	+1.6	+30.5	+13.6	+28.3
St. Louis	+5.6	−11.3	−8.1	+5.0	+12.3	+18.1	+38.5
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta	−2.9	−22.0	−8.1	+3.4	+.5	+13.9	+27.0
Richmond	+2.4	−21.3	+1.8	+1.5	+24.7	+32.6	+35.1
East South Central:							
Birmingham	−6.7	−23.4	−7.0	−10.4	+16.7	−2.9	+17.0
Memphis	+2.2	−22.0	−2.9	+.6	+45.9	+15.9	+30.6
West South Central:							
New Orleans	+3.6	−16.1	−1.8	+12.1	+2.9	+26.8	+36.7
Mountain:							
Denver	+6.6	−10.5	−6.5	+17.5	+.7	+16.8	+37.0

COST OF LIVING IN THE UNITED STATES AND CERTAIN FOREIGN COUNTRIES

THE TREND of cost of living in the United States and 23 foreign countries for March, July, and October, 1935; January, April, July, September, and December, 1936; and March, June, and September, 1937 is shown in the following table. In cases where indexes for specified dates are not available, the indexes relating to the nearest pricing period are given. The number of countries included varies according to the available information.

A general index and indexes for the individual groups of items are presented for all countries shown with the exception of Australia, Irish Free State, the Netherlands, Peru, South Africa, and Yugoslavia. The Irish Free State and the Netherlands publish a general index and an index for food only.

Caution should be observed in the use of the figures because of differences in the base periods, in the number and kind of articles included, and the number of localities represented. There are also radical differences in the method of the construction and calculation of the indexes.

The table shows the trend in the general cost of living and for the groups of food, clothing, fuel and light, and rent for the countries for which such information is published in original sources.

TABLE 10.—*Indexes of Cost of Living for Specified Periods for the United States and Certain Foreign Countries*

Country	United States [1]	Australia (30 towns) [2]	Austria, Vienna	Belgium	Canada	China, Shanghai	Czechoslovakia, Prague	Estonia, Tallin
Groups of items included	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, housefurnishing goods, miscellaneous	Food and groceries, clothing, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries
Computing agency	Bureau of Labor Statistics	Bureau of Census and Statistics	Federal Statistical Bureau	Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare	Dominion Bureau of Statistics	National Tariff Commission	Office of Statistics	Central Bureau of Statistics
Base period	1923–25 =100	1923–27 =1000	July 1914=100	1921=100	1926=100	1926=100	July 1914=100	1913=100
General:								
1935—March	80.6	824	104	164.7	78.8	104.8	690	87
July	80.4	827	105	174.8	78.8	105.2	717	87
October	80.7	836	106	185.5	80.3	103.9	709	93
1936—January	81.3	838	106	187.4	80.5	111.0	712	94
April	80.6	838	104	183.4	79.6	111.7	712	97
July	82.0	841	104	179.6	80.4	112.2	709	99
September	82.4	854	105	187.5	81.1	113.5	706	100
December	82.4	869	105	194.1	81.7	117.5	706	101
1937—March	83.8	862	104	197.2	82.0	116.8	715	103
June	84.5	----------	106	197.8	82.7	119.0	725	104
September	85.0	----------	105	207.7	83.4	----------	724	104
Food:								
1935—March	79.8	795	98	130.8	69.5	85.7	629	76
July	80.2	812	102	143.8	69.3	90.3	685	76
October	80.2	827	103	159.5	72.4	86.3	668	83
1936—January	81.6	812	102	161.4	73.9	93.3	673	84
April	79.4	815	98	155.3	71.0	97.9	674	87
July	84.0	825	100	149.0	72.6	99.8	675	91
September	84.3	842	101	160.2	75.1	102.3	667	91
December	82.9	854	101	169.0	75.3	106.8	661	92
1937—March	85.4	842	99	170.5	75.7	104.9	665	97
June	86.3	----------	101	169.7	76.4	104.0	683	96
September	85.8	----------	99	182.2	78.3	----------	669	95
Clothing:								
1935—March	78.0	785	157	206.6	70.3	80.7	681	128
July	77.8	789	157	214.1	69.9	77.9	681	131
October	78.0	793	157	215.1	71.6	77.6	683	135
1936—January	78.3	794	157	217.4	70.6	84.0	683	135
April	78.6	795	157	218.2	70.2	84.3	687	135
July	78.4	----------	157	219.2	70.7	85.3	687	135
September	78.6	----------	157	220.7	70.6	84.3	687	135
December	79.6	----------	157	222.9	71.6	100.7	722	135
1937—March	80.9	----------	160	231.5	72.6	100.7	754	135
June	82.1	----------	160	236.9	72.9	108.9	765	141
September	84.0	----------	160	239.4	72.9	----------	823	142
Fuel and light:								
1935—March	89.3	----------	109	149.8	88.7	123.3	789	54
July	84.9	----------	109	155.0	84.7	101.8	769	56
October	87.7	----------	109	154.1	86.4	116.3	777	65
1936—January	88.3	----------	109	160.0	87.2	137.6	776	73
April	88.0	----------	109	158.3	87.3	132.5	776	79
July	86.1	----------	108	161.9	85.8	127.4	755	76
September	87.4	----------	108	164.5	86.1	126.8	767	75
December	87.8	----------	108	169.6	86.7	127.0	765	75
1937—March	88.1	----------	108	178.7	86.6	128.7	776	75
June	84.9	----------	107	181.1	84.2	129.7	776	79
September	86.0	----------	108	196.9	84.7	----------	776	82
Rent:								
1935—March	62.6	818	31	389.8	80.3	111.4	734	112
July	62.7	823	31	391.6	81.4	111.4	734	112
October	63.3	832	31	392.0	82.6	111.0	734	116
1936—January	63.5	839	33	391.9	82.6	111.0	734	116
April	63.7	852	33	392.1	82.6	110.3	734	115
July	64.2	----------	33	392.6	83.8	109.6	717	115
September	64.6	----------	33	392.9	83.8	109.0	717	125
December	65.4	----------	33	394.0	84.9	109.0	717	125
1937—March	65.9	----------	33	395.4	84.9	109.1	737	125
June	67.5	----------	33	397.5	87.3	109.4	737	126
September	68.1	----------	33	401.0	87.3	----------	737	126

[1] Indexes relate to the 15th of the month.

[2] General, clothing, and rent indexes relate to the quarter.

TABLE 10.—*Indexes of Cost of Living for Specified Periods for the United States and Certain Foreign Countries*—Continued

Country	Finland [3]	France [4]	Germany	Hungary, Budapest	India, Bombay [5]	Irish Free State [6]	Italy, Milan	Netherlands, The Hague [7]
Groups of items included	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, taxes, and sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries
Computing agency	Ministry for Social Affairs	Commission for Study of Cost of Living	Federal Statistical Bureau	Central Office of Statistics	Labour Office	Department of Industry and Commerce	Municipal Administration	Bureau of Statistics
Base period	1935=100	1930=100	1913–14 =100	1913=100	July 1933 to June 1934=100	July 1914=100	June 1928=100	1921=100
General:								
1935—March		82.3	122.2	89.4	99	153		66.2
July		78.7	124.3	92.8	101	151	81.2	65.6
October		78.7	122.8	93.0	101	156	84.6	65.2
1936—January	100	77.8	124.3	95.0	103	162	87.5	65.8
April	99	77.8	124.3	96.4	100	159	87.2	65.5
July	99	80.3	125.3	95.1	101	157	88.8	64.8
September	101	80.3	124.4	97.0	101	159	89.2	64.7
December	102	91.1	124.3	97.7	102	166	92.0	65.3
1937—March	104	96.5	125.0	102.1	104	167	92.5	66.6
June	106	99.4	125.3	101.9	105	167	96.6	67.2
September			125.1		108	170		
Food:								
1935—March		77.7	118.8	78.2	100	136		56.4
July		72.2	122.9	84.7	105	132	73.4	55.3
October		72.2	119.6	84.2	104	140	79.8	54.4
1936—January	100	71.8	122.3	85.8	108	150	82.3	55.9
April	98	71.8	122.4	88.5	105	145	81.6	55.4
July	98	76.3	124.0	85.8	107	141	82.9	55.1
September	99	76.3	122.0	88.0	106	145	83.5	54.6
December	101	88.5	121.0	88.5	107	155	86.6	54.9
1937—March	106	93.3	122.3	93.4	112	153	87.5	56.2
June	104	95.3	122.9	92.3	112	152	89.3	56.9
September			122.0		117	154		
Clothing:								
1935—March		72.0	117.2	101.7	90			
July		70.7	117.8	101.7	86		63.0	
October		70.7	118.4	103.6	86		71.8	
1936—January	100	71.3	118.5	114.0	85		78.4	
April	100	71.3	118.7	114.6	85		78.4	
July	100	70.7	119.9	115.0	84		84.3	
September	100	70.7	121.0	121.2	83		84.3	
December	101	82.7	124.2	123.9	83		89.8	
1937—March	103	94.0	124.5	136.9	83		89.8	
June	104	103.3	125.2	136.9	84		108.7	
September			126.6		86			
Fuel and light:								
1935—March		92	127.6	133.1	103			
July		92	124.6	132.7	105		94.6	
October		92	126.8	134.6	103		95.5	
1936—January	103	88	127.1	133.3	102		103.8	
April	109	88	126.3	133.1	96		107.3	
July	108	88	124.5	133.3	98		108.3	
September	110	88	125.5	133.5	101		108.3	
December	116	98	126.8	134.4	100		115.2	
1937—March	123	102	126.6	136.4	104		115.2	
June	127	104	123.7	139.3	109		115.2	
September			125.0		106			
Rent:								
1935—March		107	121.2	86.3	100			
July		107	121.2	86.3	100		107.8	
October		107	121.3	86.3	100		107.8	
1936—January	100	99	121.3	86.3	100		107.8	
April	100	99	121.3	86.3	100		107.8	
July	100	99	121.3	86.3	100		107.8	
September	104	99	121.3	86.3	100		107.8	
December	104	102	121.3	86.3	100		107.8	
1937—March	104	104	121.3	86.3	100		107.8	
June	104	105	121.3	86.3	100		107.8	
September			121.3		100			

[3] General, clothing, and rent indexes relate to January, April, July, and October.

[4] Indexes for 1935 and 1936 relate to May and November; indexes for 1937 relate to February and May.

[5] Revised series.

[6] Indexes relate to February, May, August, and November.

[7] Indexes relate to March, June, September, and December.

TABLE 10.—*Indexes of Cost of Living for Specified Periods for the United States and Certain Foreign Countries*—Continued

Country	New Zealand [8]	Norway [9]	Peru, Lima	South Africa	Sweden [10]	Switzerland	United Kingdom	Yugoslavia, Beograd [11]
Groups of items included	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, rent, sundries	Food, fuel, light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, sundries
Computing agency	Census and Statistics Department	Central Statistical Bureau	General Office of Statistics	Office of Census and Statistics	Board of Social Welfare	Federal Office of Industry, etc.	Ministry of Labour	National Bank
Base period	1926–30=1000	July 1914=100	1913=100	1914=1000	July 1914=100	June 1914=100	July 1914=100	1926=100
General:								
1935—March	826	149	152	1157	155	127	141	70.7
July	835	151	152	1156	156	128	143	68.0
October	836	153	153	1146	157	129	145	69.9
1936—January	853	153	157	1157	158	130	147	71.1
April	840	155	158	1161	158	130	144	70.4
July	856	155	160	1157	158	130	146	67.8
September	870	155	161	1153	157	130	147	68.8
December	883	157	162	1162	158	132	151	70.1
1937—March	898	161	167	1173	161	136	151	69.7
June	919	166	171	1186	162	137	152	73.2
September	927	170	----	----	----	137	155	----
Food:								
1935—March	819	135	148	1024	126	112	122	69.5
July	826	140	147	1019	129	115	126	66.3
October	875	142	147	998	131	117	128	69.1
1936—January	841	142	154	1016	132	118	131	70.8
April	845	145	155	1024	134	119	126	69.9
July	875	145	157	1011	134	120	129	66.7
September	899	143	159	1002	132	121	131	68.3
December	914	145	159	1000	133	123	136	70.3
1937—March	923	152	170	1013	137	129	135	69.0
June	945	157	173	1029	138	131	136	73.0
September	----	163	----	----	----	130	140	----
Clothing:								
1935—March	831	144	167	----	167	115	188	73.7
July	828	143	170	----	167	114	188	71.2
October	829	145	173	----	167	112	185	70.7
1936—January	825	145	173	----	168	112	185	72.1
April	823	146	173	----	169	111	188	72.1
July	828	146	176	----	169	111	190	71.8
September	843	147	176	----	169	111	190	70.6
December	854	148	176	----	170	111	190	72.1
1937—March	884	153	176	----	174	118	195	73.1
June	911	159	180	----	179	120	203	75.3
September	929	162	----	----	----	120	205	----
Fuel and light:								
1935—March	837	138	----	----	137	115	173	73.2
July	872	139	----	----	137	113	168	71.4
October	874	141	----	----	138	113	170	71.5
1936—January	876	143	----	----	138	113	175	71.2
April	874	145	----	----	140	113	178	71.2
July	875	147	----	----	139	112	173	68.7
September	898	155	----	----	140	111	173	69.2
December	903	160	----	----	141	114	175	69.2
1937—March	906	165	----	----	143	116	178	69.2
June	919	182	----	----	148	116	175	72.6
September	929	199	----	----	----	116	178	----
Rent:								
1935—March	766	166	153	----	198	182	156	----
July	771	166	153	----	198	180	158	----
October	776	166	156	----	198	180	158	----
1936—January	783	166	156	----	198	180	158	----
April	789	167	161	----	196	180	158	----
July	800	167	161	----	196	177	159	----
September	812	170	161	----	196	177	159	----
December	816	170	161	----	196	177	159	----
1937—March	820	171	161	----	195	177	159	----
June	825	171	169	----	195	175	159	----
September	830	174	----	----	----	175	159	----

[8] Indexes relate to February, May, August, and November for all groups except food.

[9] Indexes for clothing and rent relate to March, June, September, and December.

[10] Indexes relate to January, April, July, and October.

[11] Food indexes revised.

Labor Turn-Over

LABOR TURN-OVER IN MANUFACTURING, SEPTEMBER 1937

HIGHER turn-over rates in manufacturing industries were indicated for September by the Bureau of Labor Statistics' survey of labor turn-over.

The quit rate increased from 1.23 in August to 1.59 in September. No change was shown in the discharge rate. The lay-off rate was 2.57 in August and 2.84 in September. The total separation rate rose from 3.99 to 4.62. The accession rate increased from 3.36 to 3.78 per 100 employees.

Compared with the corresponding month of last year, increases were shown in the quit, lay-off, and total separation rates. The discharge rate declined from 0.26 to 0.19. The accession rate decreased from 5.09 per 100 employees to 3.78.

All Manufacturing

The Bureau of Labor Statistics' survey of labor turn-over covers more than 5,000 representative manufacturing establishments, which in September employed more than 2,650,000 workers. The rates represent the number of changes in personnel per 100 employees on the pay rolls during the month.

The rates shown in table 1 are compiled from reports received from representative plants in 144 industries. In the 18 industries for which separate rates are shown (see table 2) reports were received from representative plants employing at least 25 percent of the workers in each industry.

Table 1 shows the total separation rate broken down into quit, discharge, and lay-off rates and the accession rate for each month of 1936 and for the first 9 months of 1937 for manufacturing as a whole. The average monthly rates for 1936 are also presented.

TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Representative Factories in 144 Industries*

Class of rate and year	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Average
Quit rate:													
1937	1.27	1.19	1.43	1.38	1.37	1.89	1.25	1.23	1.59				
1936	.71	.68	.86	1.16	1.06	1.13	1.15	1.23	1.57	1.29	1.13	1.05	1.09
Discharge rate:													
1937	.21	.22	.24	.23	.21	.19	.21	.19	.19				
1936	.20	.17	.19	.21	.20	.23	.23	.27	.26	.24	.21	.22	.22
Lay-off rate: [1]													
1937	1.90	1.44	1.53	1.48	1.79	1.94	2.06	2.57	2.84				
1936	2.66	2.21	1.83	1.92	2.06	1.92	1.84	3.23	1.47	1.72	1.70	2.14	2.06
Total separation rate:													
1937	3.38	2.85	3.20	3.09	3.37	4.02	3.52	3.99	4.62				
1936	3.57	3.06	2.88	3.29	3.32	3.28	3.22	4.73	3.30	3.25	3.04	3.41	3.37
Accession rate:													
1937	4.60	4.71	4.74	4.04	3.56	3.69	3.36	3.36	3.78				
1936	3.65	2.95	3.97	4.46	4.05	4.49	4.94	4.72	5.09	4.83	4.60	4.41	4.35

[1] Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

Eighteen Industries

In addition to the information for manufacturing as a whole, detailed labor turn-over rates are available for 18 separate manufacturing industries.

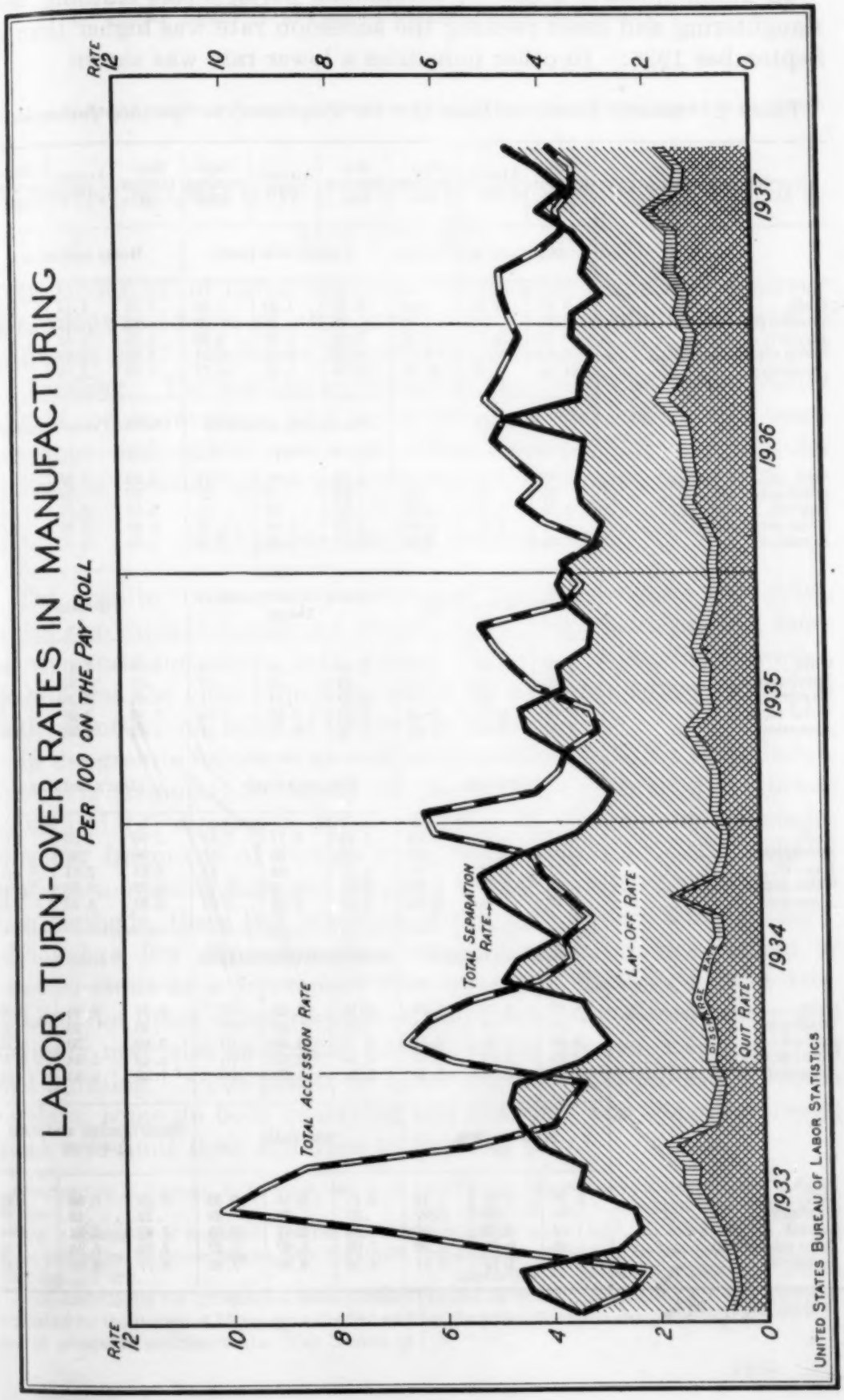
Reports received from plants manufacturing rubber tires indicate that labor turn-over was lower in that industry than in any of the 18 manufacturing industries for which separate rates are shown. The total separation rate for September was 1.96 per 100 employees and the accession rate 1.24. The lowest accession rate (1.16) occurred in the boot and shoe industry. It was accompanied, however, by a total separation rate of 4.63 marking a seasonal recession in the industry.

The resumption of operations in the automobile and body industry was reflected in an accession rate of 21.04 per 100 employees.

The highest quit rate (4.31) was shown in the furniture manufacturing industry, and the lowest in plants producing rubber tires. Radios and phonographs indicated the highest discharge rate (0.51) and men's clothing the lowest (0.06). Slaughtering and meat packing reported the highest lay-off rate (5.82); the lowest (0.37) was registered in plants manufacturing cigars and cigarettes. The highest total separation rate (7.30) was shown in the furniture industry.

Compared with the preceding month a higher quit rate prevailed in 15 of the 18 industries. The discharge rate decreased in 10 instances. A higher lay-off rate was indicated in 10 industries and total separations were more numerous in 11. The hiring rate increased in the following industries: Automobiles and bodies, automobile parts, hardware, rubber tires, and slaughtering and meat packing.

A comparison with August 1936 indicates that the lay-off and total separation rates were higher in 13 industries. The quit rate increased in 5 and the discharge rate in 3.


LABOR TURN-OVER RATES IN MANUFACTURING
PER 100 ON THE PAY ROLL
RATE
12
10
8
6
4
2
0
TOTAL ACCESSION RATE
TOTAL SEPARATION RATE
LAY-OFF RATE
DISCHARGE RATE
QUIT RATE
1933
1934
1935
1936
1937
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

In automobiles and bodies, automobile parts, men's clothing, and slaughtering and meat packing the accession rate was higher than in September 1936. In other industries a lower rate was shown.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Specified Industries*

Class of rates	September 1937	August 1937	September 1936	September 1937	August 1937	September 1936	September 1937	August 1937	September 1936
	Automobiles and bodies			Automobile parts			Boots and shoes		
Quit	0.97	1.01	1.24	1.30	1.20	1.46	1.18	1.13	1.19
Discharge	.29	.14	.23	.26	.27	.39	.12	.21	.24
Lay-off	5.56	21.01	3.10	2.63	6.80	3.36	3.33	1.55	1.68
Total separation	6.82	22.16	4.57	4.19	8.27	5.21	4.63	2.89	3.11
Accession	21.04	3.46	20.35	12.15	5.61	10.72	1.16	2.33	2.36
	Brick			Cigars and cigarettes			Cotton manufacturing		
Quit	1.62	1.41	3.17	1.73	1.64	2.01	1.72	1.45	2.12
Discharge	.30	.26	.32	.12	.12	.27	.19	.24	.31
Lay-off	2.79	5.00	2.93	.37	1.06	.50	3.58	2.17	1.24
Total separation	4.71	6.67	6.42	2.22	2.82	2.78	5.49	3.86	3.67
Accession	3.09	5.47	5.92	3.17	4.93	5.22	2.29	3.01	5.02
	Electrical machinery			Foundries and machine shops			Furniture		
Quit	1.47	1.02	1.33	1.41	1.12	1.54	4.31	1.41	1.91
Discharge	.18	.16	.18	.22	.25	.34	.31	.32	.44
Lay-off	1.13	.63	.52	2.39	1.51	1.71	2.68	2.23	1.84
Total separation	2.78	1.81	2.03	4.02	2.88	3.59	7.30	3.96	4.19
Accession	2.59	2.85	4.84	2.72	3.11	4.31	3.42	6.93	7.81
	Hardware			Iron and steel			Men's clothing		
Quit	1.17	1.35	0.92	1.39	1.17	1.47	1.09	1.05	1.07
Discharge	.17	.19	.09	.09	.10	.13	.06	.07	.09
Lay-off	2.71	1.68	.35	1.17	.84	.62	4.18	2.81	2.03
Total separation	4.05	3.22	1.36	2.65	2.11	2.22	5.33	3.93	3.19
Accession	3.25	1.45	4.09	1.92	2.52	2.93	2.68	3.23	2.44
	Petroleum refining			Radios and phonographs			Rayon		
Quit	0.99	0.75	1.09	2.18	3.40	(1)	1.34	0.94	1.59
Discharge	.07	.08	.15	.51	.59	(1)	.20	.20	.22
Lay-off	2.08	2.58	2.37	2.15	2.68	(1)	3.89	.30	.50
Total separation	3.14	3.41	3.61	4.84	6.67	(1)	5.43	1.44	2.31
Accession	1.64	2.78	2.24	2.50	6.51	(1)	1.38	2.86	2.65
	Rubber tires			Sawmills			Slaughtering and meat packing		
Quit	0.75	0.66	1.12	3.17	3.15	2.53	0.98	0.85	1.82
Discharge	.09	.05	.07	.37	.35	.39	.22	.15	.23
Lay-off	1.12	2.02	.17	3.54	2.47	3.35	5.82	5.84	4.84
Total separation	1.96	2.73	1.36	7.08	5.97	6.27	7.02	6.84	6.89
Accession	1.24	1.12	3.04	4.58	4.96	7.86	8.77	6.84	6.53

[1] Data not available.

Wages and Hours of Labor

EARNINGS AND HOURS IN THE GRANITE INDUSTRY, AUGUST 1937 [1]

THE BUREAU of Labor Statistics has recently completed a survey of earnings and hours of labor in the production of dimension granite in August 1937. Separate figures were obtained for quarrying and for finishing. The workers employed in quarrying dimension granite worked, on an average, 41.8 hours per week and earned 53.7 cents per hour and $22.47 per week. The corresponding averages for workers in finishing plants were 39.1 hours, 75.5 cents, and $29.50.

Characteristics of the Industry

The granite industry is only one of the many stone industries, which also include basalt and related rocks (trap rock), marble, limestone, sandstone, slate, and others. Next to limestone, however, granite was the most important of all the stone industries as regards both quantity and value of product in 1936.

In the granite industry, as well as in most of the other stone industries, it is customary to classify the product into (1) broken or crushed stone and (2) dimension stone. Broken or crushed stone includes irregular fragments of various sizes, while dimension stone includes that cut to specific sizes and shapes. Owing to differences in production methods, these two branches of the industry are fairly distinct, although a few dimension-stone establishments produce broken or crushed stone as a byproduct from quarry or finishing-plant waste.

Like the other dimension-stone industries,[2] the dimension-granite industry may also be further subdivided, by process, into quarrying and finishing. Some plants do quarrying only and sell rough blocks or slabs, some do both quarrying and finishing, and some buy rough stock and limit their activities to finishing only.[3]

[1] Prepared by J. Perlman, P. L. Jones, and O. R. Witmer.

[2] For a discussion of dimension granite, see The Stone Industries, by Oliver Bowles, New York, 1934, ch. 8 (pp. 103–167).

[3] The statistics for the dimension-granite industry published by the Bureau of Mines cover the first and second groups of establishments. The Bureau of the Census, however, tries to limit its data to finishing plants only, but it states that this is not always possible to accomplish. In other words, there is considerable overlapping in the data, which makes it impossible to present complete and accurate figures for either quarrying and finishing separately or the entire dimension-granite industry.

Granites are found in many parts of the country, the chief areas being the Appalachian district from Maine to Georgia, the Middle Western States (especially Minnesota and Wisconsin), the Rocky Mountain States, and the Pacific States (chiefly California). Relatively little quarrying, however, is as yet being done in the latter two regions. In terms of the value of dimension stone sold or used by producers in 1936, based on data from the Bureau of Mines, the leading States in order of importance in that year were Vermont, Massachusetts, Maine, Minnesota, Georgia, Wisconsin, South Dakota, North Carolina, South Carolina, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, and California. The principal granite centers are Barre, Vt.; Quincy, Mass.; St. Cloud, Minn.; Elberton, Ga.; and Mt. Airy, N. C.

As regards the uses of dimension granite,[4] the products in order of importance are monumental stone, building stone, paving blocks, curbing stone, and rubble. Monumental stone is used for tombstones and large monuments or mausoleums. The latter are made from the best grade of granite, which is carefully selected on the basis of color, texture, and freedom from blemish. A high polish is imparted to the stone. This requires considerable skill. Increasing quantities of polished stone are also being used for building purposes, because such stone is attractive and can be cleaned more easily than rough stone. Most of the building granite, however, consists of unpolished stone cut to specified shape and size in accordance with building needs. While it may be necessary that such stone conform to a certain color specified by the architect, the requirements with respect to general appearance are far less rigid than for monumental stone. Appearance is least important in the case of paving and curbing stone which, on account of the rough surface, also involves the least amount of skill in its production. Lastly, rubble consists of the lowest grade of building stone, irregular in size, one of its uses being the construction of cellar walls.

Despite the cost of transportation, which is necessarily an important factor, dimension granite produced in the various localities enjoys a wide market. Thus, finished monuments from Barre, Vt., are sold in practically every State. The same applies more or less to Quincy, Mass., and other New England granites. Likewise, stone produced in North Carolina and Georgia is shipped as far north as Philadelphia and New York and as far west as St. Louis and Chicago. Minnesota and Wisconsin granites, although used largely in the Middle West, are also sold to some extent in more distant States. These facts should be kept in mind in analyzing the geographical wage differentials found in this industry.

[4] Broken or crushed stone is used chiefly for road construction, railroad ballast, concrete aggregate, etc.

Scope and Method of Survey

Of the 185 plants covered in this survey, 39 did quarrying only, 102 finishing only, and 44 both quarrying and finishing. As in each of the latter establishments it was possible to separate the employees according to kind of work performed, it is also possible to present separate figures for the quarrying and finishing branches of the industry.

In selecting the plants the Bureau exercised great care to make the sample representative of the industry. For each State or locality, State labor departments or local associations of employers were asked to furnish as complete a list of quarries and finishing plants as possible. Representative establishments were then selected from these lists. The plants studied include about 50 percent of the number of employees in the industry, and the group as a whole is believed to be representative of such factors as branch of industry, geographical distribution, product, unionization, and size of establishment.

The survey covered 16 States, including not only the leading producing States but also some of the less important ones adjoining them. The States selected were Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Wisconsin, Minnesota, South Dakota, and California.

The products included monumental stone, building stone, paving blocks, and curbing stone. Some establishments produce small amounts of rubble in connection with these products, but no plant was included for which rubble was the principal product. It was found that most of the establishments worked on more than one product. In the main, the establishments were classified according to their principal product or products. Thus, a plant whose product was more than 90 percent building stone was classified as a building-stone plant. However, it was also necessary to use three composite classifications: Building and monumental, building and paving and curbing, and monumental and paving and curbing.

The survey covered both trade-union and non-trade-union establishments. In classifying employees, however, the Bureau used as a basis not their membership in a labor organization but whether or not they worked in plants having trade-union contracts. In other words, in establishments with trade-union contracts all employees falling within the jurisdiction of the contract or of the trade-union affected were classified as trade-union workers.

The information obtained related mainly to a pay-roll period in the first half of August 1937, although in a few plants it was necessary to take a period immediately before or after that time. Reports indicate that in all cases this period was representative.

The data obtained from each plant were copied from the pay roll and included for each employee (except higher supervisory and office workers) his occupation, skill and color, the total actual hours worked by him, and his total earnings for one pay-roll period.[5] In addition, for each establishment certain general information, such as full-time hours, shifts, overtime rates, and methods of wage payment, was obtained.

In obtaining the occupation for each worker in a plant, the foreman or other person in charge was asked to designate whether the job was skilled, semiskilled, or unskilled. This information was used for classifying the occupations in the industry according to skill, the consensus from the various plants being used as a guide in each case. In some instances of relatively small occupations, there was substantial difference of opinion as to whether or not a given occupation was to be regarded as skilled. In such cases, further inquiry was made before the occupation was classified.[6]

On the basis of the data collected, the Bureau compiled average hourly earnings, weekly hours, and weekly earnings for the industry as a whole as well as by region and State, skill, and occupation. Averages based on the arithmetic mean were computed in all cases, supplemented where necessary by a more detailed presentation in the form of frequency distributions.

Average Hourly Earnings

Methods of Wage Payment

Most of the employees in the *quarries* were paid on a time-rate basis. In 30 (28 trade-union and 2 non-trade-union) of the 83 establishments covered, punitive overtime rates, usually time and one-half, were paid to some employees. In 67 plants (17 trade-union and 50 non-trade-union) overtime compensation on a pro rata basis was paid to some of the workers.

In the *finishing* plants nearly all of the employees, with the exception of blacksmiths and paving cutters in some of the plants, were paid on a time-rate basis. In a number of cases it was the custom for the firm to pay the blacksmith a fixed amount for each man for whom he sharpened tools. In 86 finishing establishments (65 trade-union and 21 non-trade-union) overtime rates on a punitive basis, usually time and one-half, were paid to some of the workers. Pro rata rate for overtime to some of the employees was also found in 121 plants, of which 45 were trade-union and 76 non-trade-union.

[5] In case the pay-roll period exceeded 1 week, there were also obtained the total hours actually worked for 1 continuous week within the pay-roll period. This made it possible to compile data on weekly hours and earnings for all establishments.

[6] I. e., occupational information for this industry obtained from the U. S. Employment Service, occupational descriptions made by the Bureau in connection with this survey, and information obtained from existing library sources.

Average Hourly Earnings of All Employees

The 1,741 workers employed in the 83 quarries covered in this survey averaged 53.7 cents per hour in August 1937. The range of earnings was from about 10 cents an hour for a few unskilled workers in the lowest-wage quarries to more than a dollar for the best-paid workers. (See table 1.) Nearly seven-tenths of the quarry employees fell within a range of 40 cents, namely between 37.5 and 77.5 cents an hour. More than one-fifth of the workers received below 37.5 cents, and over half earned under 57.5 cents. Furthermore, more than nine-tenths of the employees earned below 77.5 cents, thus leaving less than 10 percent receiving over that figure.

The average hourly earnings of the 3,669 workers employed in the 146 finishing plants included in this survey amounted to 75.5 cents in August 1937. This was nearly 22 cents higher than the corresponding figure (53.7 cents) for quarries.

TABLE 1.—*Distribution of Employees in Dimension-Granite Industry by Average Hourly Earnings, August 1937*

Average hourly earnings	Quarrying			Finishing		
	Number of employees	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Number of employees	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage
10.0 and under 12.5 cents	5	0.3	0.3	2	0.1	0.1
12.5 and under 17.5 cents	75	4.3	4.6	23	.6	.7
17.5 and under 22.5 cents	53	3.0	7.6	45	1.2	1.9
22.5 and under 27.5 cents	53	3.1	10.7	65	1.8	3.7
27.5 and under 32.5 cents	89	5.1	15.8	58	1.6	5.3
32.5 and under 37.5 cents	104	6.0	21.8	99	2.7	8.0
37.5 and under 42.5 cents	164	9.4	31.2	195	5.3	13.3
42.5 and under 47.5 cents	59	3.4	34.6	136	3.7	17.0
47.5 and under 52.5 cents	120	6.9	41.5	257	7.0	24.0
52.5 and under 57.5 cents	157	9.0	50.5	156	4.2	28.2
57.5 and under 62.5 cents	133	7.6	58.1	155	4.3	32.5
62.5 and under 67.5 cents	212	12.2	70.3	203	5.5	38.0
67.5 and under 72.5 cents	232	13.3	83.6	137	3.7	41.7
72.5 and under 77.5 cents	129	7.4	91.0	191	5.2	46.9
77.5 and under 82.5 cents	21	1.2	92.2	237	6.5	53.4
82.5 and under 87.5 cents	19	1.1	93.3	90	2.4	55.8
87.5 and under 92.5 cents	36	2.1	95.4	155	4.3	60.1
92.5 and under 97.5 cents	10	.6	96.0	54	1.4	61.5
97.5 and under 102.5 cents	34	2.1	97.9	1,017	27.8	89.3
102.5 and under 107.5 cents				128	3.5	92.8
107.5 and under 112.5 cents				54	1.4	94.2
112.5 and under 125.0 cents	36	2.1	100.0	92	2.5	96.7
125.0 and under 150.0 cents				114	3.1	99.8
150.0 cents and over				6	.2	100.0
Total	1,741	100.0	----	3,669	100.0	----

The average earnings per hour of the individual employees in the finishing plants covered even a wider range than in the quarries branch of the industry. However, only 8.0 percent of the workers in the finishing plants earned less than 37.5 cents an hour. There were 53.5 percent earning 37.5 and under 97.5 cents. The largest number (27.8 percent of the total) fell in the class of 97.5 cents and under $1.025; this concentration was due to the fact that most of the cutters

(an important occupation) received $1 per hour. Nearly nine-tenths earned under $1.025, thus leaving slightly more than 10 percent receiving over that figure.

In both quarrying and finishing, the distribution of the earnings of individual employees is irregular with a succession of points of concentration, showing the effect of various factors in this industry.

Average Hourly Earnings, by Skill

Of the 1,741 quarry employees covered, 1,216, or 69.9 percent, were classified by the plants as skilled. The remaining employees were divided almost equally between semiskilled (246, or 14.1 percent) and unskilled (279, or 16.0 percent). There were only five apprentices (classified as semiskilled) found in this branch of the industry.

Skill is one of the elements responsible for the variations in individual earnings, as may be seen from the fact that the average hourly earnings amounted to 59.1 cents for skilled, 44.6 cents for semiskilled, and 38.4 cents for unskilled workers. It should also be noted that the differential between the skilled and semiskilled is more than twice as large as that between semiskilled and unskilled.

The extent to which the above differentials are reflected in the respective frequency distributions may be seen from table 2. The proportion of employees earning under 37.5 cents per hour (which is 0.9 cents below the average for unskilled) was 13.3 percent for skilled, 39.8 percent for semiskilled, and 42.7 percent for unskilled. Furthermore, the proportions receiving below 42.5 cents (which is 2.1 cents below the average for semiskilled) were, respectively, 21.3, 48.8, and 58.8 percent. A considerable number of skilled workers are therefore found in the lower wage brackets, along with the large number of semiskilled and unskilled workers. On the other hand, the group of employees earning above 77.5 cents formed 12.5 percent of the skilled, as compared with only 1.6 percent of the semiskilled and none for the unskilled workers.

The proportion of employees classified as skilled by their supervisors was larger in finishing plants than in quarries. Thus, of the 3,669 workers in the finishing plants, 2,822 (76.9 percent) were classed as skilled. Among the remaining employees, 303 (8.3 percent) were classified as semiskilled, and 333 (9.1 percent) were regarded as unskilled. There were 211 apprentices (5.7 percent), approximately 1 apprentice for 13 skilled employees.

The skilled workers earned about twice as much as the remaining employees, the figures being 85.8 cents for skilled as against 47.2 cents for semiskilled, 39.5 cents for unskilled, and 47.1 cents for apprentices. The workers classified as skilled in finishing plants earned on the average 26.7 cents more than those so classified in quarries. The difference was 2.6 cents more for semiskilled and 1.1

cents more for unskilled workers in finishing plants. In other words, the difference in favor of finishing plants over quarries as regards average hourly earnings arises partly from the fact that finishing plants employ a slightly larger proportion of skilled workers and partly from the fact that men classified as skilled in finishing plants earn substantially more than those so classified in quarries.

The frequency distributions of the earnings of individual employees in finishing plants further indicate the relative advantage of skilled workers. Thus, only 1.7 percent of the workers classified as skilled earned less than 37.5 cents an hour, as compared with 24.1 percent of the semiskilled, 25.1 percent of the apprentices, and 35.4 percent of the unskilled. The figure 37.5 cents per hour is just below the average of the unskilled. Furthermore, the number receiving under 47.5 cents, or slightly above the average of the semiskilled and apprentices, amounted to 48.5 percent for semiskilled, 66.4 percent for unskilled, and 55.9 percent for apprentices, but in the case of skilled it was only 4.9 percent. On the other hand, over 60 percent of the skilled earned 82.5 cents and over, but hardly any employees belonging to the other groups were found above that limit. Lastly, as in the case of the total distribution, the greatest concentration in the skilled group, or 36 percent, was in the class of 97.5 cents and under $1.025 (because of the $1.00 per hour paid to many cutters), and as many as 14 percent earned $1.025 and over.

TABLE 2.—*Distribution of Employees in the Dimension-Granite Industry by Average Hourly Earnings and by Skill, August 1937*

QUARRYING

Average hourly earnings	Skilled employees			Semiskilled employees [1]			Unskilled employees		
	Number	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Number	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Number	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage
10.0 and under 12.5 cents				2	0.8	0.8	3	1.1	1.1
12.5 and under 17.5 cents	44	3.6	3.6	7	2.9	3.7	24	8.6	9.7
17.5 and under 22.5 cents	15	1.3	4.9	20	8.1	11.8	18	6.4	16.1
22.5 and under 27.5 cents	37	3.0	7.9	6	2.4	14.2	10	3.6	19.7
27.5 and under 32.5 cents	31	2.5	10.4	18	7.3	21.5	40	14.4	34.1
32.5 and under 37.5 cents	35	2.9	13.3	45	18.3	39.8	24	8.6	42.7
37.5 and under 42.5 cents	97	8.0	21.3	22	9.0	48.8	45	16.1	58.8
42.5 and under 47.5 cents	41	3.4	24.7	12	4.9	53.7	6	2.1	60.9
47.5 and under 52.5 cents	79	6.5	31.2	19	7.7	61.4	22	7.9	68.8
52.5 and under 57.5 cents	61	5.0	36.2	27	11.0	72.4	69	24.7	93.5
57.5 and under 62.5 cents	115	9.4	45.6	8	3.2	75.6	10	3.6	97.1
62.5 and under 67.5 cents	188	15.5	61.1	22	9.0	84.6	2	.7	97.8
67.5 and under 72.5 cents	203	16.7	77.8	24	9.7	94.3	5	1.8	99.6
72.5 and under 77.5 cents	118	9.7	87.5	10	4.1	98.4	1	.4	100.0
77.5 and under 82.5 cents	20	1.6	89.1	1	.4	98.8			
82.5 and under 87.5 cents	19	1.6	90.7			98.8			
87.5 and under 92.5 cents	33	2.7	93.4	3	1.2	100.0			
92.5 and under 97.5 cents	10	.8	94.2						
97.5 and under 102.5 cents	34	2.8	97.0						
102.5 cents and over	36	3.0	100.0						
Total	1,216	100.0		246	100.0		279	100.0	

[1] Includes apprentices and leaners.

TABLE 2.—*Distribution of Employees in the Dimension-Granite Industry by Average Hourly Earnings and by Skill, August 1937*—Continued

FINISHING

Average hourly earnings	Skilled employees			Semiskilled employees			Unskilled employees			Apprentices		
	Number	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Number	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Number	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Number	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage
10.0 and under 12.5 cents	------	------	------	------	------	------	2	0.6	0.6	------	------	------
12.5 and under 17.5 cents	1	(1)	(1)	4	1.3	1.3	17	5.1	5.7	1	0.5	0.5
17.5 and under 22.5 cents	6	0.2	0.2	5	1.7	3.0	27	8.1	13.8	7	3.3	3.8
22.5 and under 27.5 cents	6	.3	.5	13	4.3	7.3	25	7.5	21.3	21	9.9	13.7
27.5 and under 32.5 cents	7	.2	.7	21	6.9	14.2	25	7.5	28.8	5	2.4	16.1
32.5 and under 37.5 cents	28	1.0	1.7	30	9.9	24.1	22	6.6	35.4	19	9.0	25.1
37.5 and under 42.5 cents	33	1.2	2.9	46	15.2	39.3	81	24.4	59.8	35	16.6	41.7
42.5 and under 47.5 cents	56	2.0	4.9	28	9.2	48.5	22	6.6	66.4	30	14.2	55.9
47.5 and under 52.5 cents	122	4.3	9.2	50	16.5	65.0	54	16.2	82.6	31	14.7	70.6
52.5 and under 57.5 cents	77	2.7	11.9	31	10.2	75.2	34	10.2	92.8	14	6.7	77.3
57.5 and under 62.5 cents	109	3.9	15.8	31	10.3	85.5	10	3.0	95.8	5	2.3	79.6
62.5 and under 67.5 cents	157	5.5	21.3	28	9.2	94.7	6	1.8	97.6	12	5.7	85.3
67.5 and under 72.5 cents	121	4.3	25.6	8	2.7	97.4	3	.9	98.5	5	2.4	87.7
72.5 and under 77.5 cents	165	5.9	31.5	6	1.9	99.3	4	1.2	99.7	16	7.6	95.3
77.5 and under 82.5 cents	230	8.1	39.6	------	------	99.3	------	------	99.7	7	3.3	98.6
82.5 and under 87.5 cents	89	3.2	42.8	------	------	99.3	1	.3	100.0	------	------	98.6
87.5 and under 92.5 cents	153	5.4	48.2	------	------	99.3	------	------	------	2	.9	99.5
92.5 and under 97.5 cents	51	1.8	50.0	2	.7	100.0	------	------	------	1	.5	100.0
97.5 and under 102.5 cents	1,017	36.0	86.0	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
102.5 and under 107.5 cents	128	4.6	90.6	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
107.5 and under 112.5 cents	54	1.9	92.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
112.5 and under 125.0 cents	92	3.2	95.7	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
125.0 and under 150.0 cents	114	4.1	99.8	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
150.0 cents and over	6	.2	100.0	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Total	2,822	100.0	------	303	100.0	------	333	100.0	------	211	100.0	------

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

Geographical Differences

As seen from table 3, the geographical factor also contributed to the widespread and multimodal character of the distribution of hourly earnings. The average hourly earnings of all employees in quarries surveyed ranged from 24.6 cents in Georgia and South Carolina combined to 72.4 cents in Vermont. North Carolina averaged 36.5 cents, while the average of Pennsylvania and Maryland was approximately 42 cents. The three Middle Western

States—Wisconsin, Minnesota, and South Dakota—had a combined average of 54 cents, and occupied more or less a middle position between the two extremes. New York and Connecticut together averaged about 60 cents, while the remaining New England States averaged about 66 cents, thus being near the top limit denoted by the Vermont average.

In the finishing plants the hourly earnings of all employees by States in the establishments surveyed ranged from 38.7 cents in South Carolina to $1.052 in New York, but, excluding these two States, the spread was only from 58.6 cents in North Carolina to 91.2 cents in New Hampshire. The average for finishing plants surveyed in Georgia was slightly higher than in North Carolina, in this respect apparently differing from quarries. But in both branches of the industry, the three Southern States had the lowest averages. Finishing plants in Pennsylvania and Maryland had higher averages than those in the three Middle Western States. This also represents a change in the regional relationship found in quarrying. As in quarries, the highest averages in the finishing branch of the industry also appeared in the New England States. The average of California was on a par with the lowest averages reported in the New England States.

TABLE 3.—*Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings in the Dimension-Granite Industry, by Region, State, and Skill, August 1937*

QUARRYING

Region and State	Number of plants	Number of employees				Average hourly earnings			
		All	Skilled	Semi-skilled [1]	Unskilled	All	Skilled	Semi-skilled [1]	Unskilled
All States	83	1,741	1,216	246	279	$0.537	$0.591	$0.446	$0.384
Region 1	13	241	209	5	27	.664	.683	(2)	.537
Maine	6	163	139	3	21	.669	.690	(2)	.541
New Hampshire	7	78	70	2	6	.654	.669	(2)	(2)
Region 2: Vermont	5	316	221	47	48	.724	.779	.667	.524
Region 3: Massachusetts	13	272	216	17	39	.660	.689	.613	.504
Region 4	9	137	94	33	10	.639	.670	.587	(2)
Connecticut and New York [3]	4	62	47	12	3	.598	.636	.474	(2)
Rhode Island	5	75	47	21	7	.674	.707	.648	(2)
Region 5	11	179	115	55	9	.415	.441	.380	(2)
Pennsylvania	5	63	28	34	1	.420	.479	.372	(2)
Maryland	6	116	87	21	8	.413	.429	.391	(2)
Region 6	12	363	205	61	97	.281	.317	.239	.226
North Carolina	3	126	49	25	52	.365	.466	.316	.287
Georgia and South Carolina [4]	9	237	156	36	45	.246	.279	.203	.168
Region 7	17	224	148	27	49	.540	.600	.470	.407
Wisconsin	6	69	49	6	14	.538	.567	(2)	.460
Minnesota	7	106	66	15	25	.551	.627	.506	.397
South Dakota	4	49	33	6	10	.518	.585	(2)	(2)
Region 8: California	3	9	8	1	----	(2)	(2)	(2)	----

[1] Includes apprentices and learners.
[2] Fewer than 12 employees; no average computed.
[3] Includes only 1 quarry in New York.
[4] Includes only 1 quarry in South Carolina.

TABLE 3.—*Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings in the Dimension-Granite Industry, by Region, State, and Skill, August 1937*—Con.

QUARRYING

Region and State	Number of plants	Average weekly hours				Average weekly earnings			
		All	Skilled	Semi-skilled [1]	Unskilled	All	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Unskilled
All States	83	41.8	41.7	41.8	42.3	$22.47	$24.66	$18.67	$16.24
Region 1	13	39.9	39.8	(2)	41.0	26.52	27.22	(2)	22.00
Maine	6	40.0	39.9	(2)	41.3	26.73	27.56	(2)	22.33
New Hampshire	7	39.9	39.7	(2)	(2)	26.08	26.54	(2)	(2)
Region 2: Vermont	5	37.1	37.2	35.6	37.7	26.84	29.03	23.72	19.78
Region 3: Massachusetts	13	37.2	37.5	38.2	34.9	24.51	25.85	23.45	17.60
Region 4	9	40.5	40.3	40.2	(2)	25.87	26.99	23.59	(2)
Connecticut and New York [3]	4	41.6	42.3	39.1	(2)	24.90	26.88	18.55	(2)
Rhode Island	5	39.6	38.3	40.8	(2)	26.68	27.09	26.46	(2)
Region 5	11	46.2	46.6	45.3	(2)	19.17	20.54	17.20	(2)
Pennsylvania	5	43.5	43.8	43.1	(2)	18.26	20.96	16.04	(2)
Maryland	6	47.6	47.6	48.9	(2)	19.67	20.41	19.09	(2)
Region 6	12	45.9	47.6	43.7	43.8	12.92	15.08	10.45	9.92
North Carolina	3	39.2	40.8	34.0	40.1	14.28	19.02	10.76	11.51
Georgia and South Carolina [4]	9	49.5	49.7	50.5	48.1	12.20	13.84	10.23	8.09
Region 7	17	46.9	46.2	46.5	49.5	25.34	27.70	21.89	20.13
Wisconsin	6	38.4	38.7	(2)	37.3	20.68	21.94	(2)	17.15
Minnesota	7	50.6	49.3	48.3	55.5	27.89	30.88	24.48	22.05
South Dakota	4	51.0	51.1	(2)	(2)	26.39	29.88	(2)	(2)
Region 8: California	3	(2)	(2)	(2)		(2)	(2)	(2)	

[1] Includes apprentices and learners.
[2] Fewer than 12 employees; no average computed.
[3] Includes only 1 quarry in New York.
[4] Includes only 1 quarry in South Carolina.

FINISHING

Region and State	Number of plants	Number of employees					Average hourly earnings				
		All	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Unskilled	Apprentices	All	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Unskilled	Apprentices
All States	146	3,669	2,822	303	333	211	$0.755	$0.858	$0.472	$0.395	$0.471
Region 1	8	368	314	22	9	23	.809	.857	.499	(1)	.588
Maine	4	275	236	18	7	14	.774	.821	.482	(1)	.527
New Hampshire	4	93	78	4	2	9	.912	.964	(1)	(1)	(1)
Region 2: Vermont	45	880	723	58	39	60	.895	.984	.461	.511	.532
Region 3: Massachusetts	22	571	470	42	48	11	.828	.898	.597	.480	(1)
Region 4	15	326	259	24	35	8	.891	1.003	.529	.484	(1)
Rhode Island	4	90	71	10	3	6	.850	.952	(1)	(1)	(1)
Connecticut	7	122	95	11	15	1	.764	.855	(1)	.433	(1)
New York	4	114	93	3	17	1	1.052	1.191	(1)	.552	(1)
Region 5	15	163	129	14	15	5	.690	.763	.482	.405	(1)
Pennsylvania	11	135	106	12	12	5	.681	.750	.496	.433	(1)
Maryland	4	28	23	2	3		.737	.828	(1)	(1)	
Region 6	21	646	414	47	107	78	.552	.714	.316	.241	.371
North Carolina	6	259	189	15	41	14	.586	.690	.349	.301	.404
South Carolina	4	114	45	10	24	35	.387	.608	(1)	.152	.323
Georgia	11	273	180	22	42	29	.602	.770	.350	.243	.416
Region 7	15	670	482	92	73	23	.644	.722	.469	.437	.495
Wisconsin	6	142	129	5	5	3	.663	.693	(1)	(1)	(1)
Minnesota and South Dakota [2]	9	528	353	87	68	20	.640	.730	.469	.442	.500
Region 8: California	5	45	31	4	7	3	.769	.880	(1)	(1)	(1)

[1] Fewer than 12 employees; no average computed.
[2] Includes only 1 finishing plant in South Dakota.

TABLE 3.—*Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings in the Dimensions Granite Industry, by Region, State, and Skill, August 1937*—Con.

FINISHING

Region and State	Number of plants	Average weekly hours					Average weekly earnings				
		All	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Un-skilled	Ap-prentices	All	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Un-skilled	Ap-prentices
All States	146	39.1	38.2	43.3	42.7	39.0	$29.50	$32.79	$20.44	$16.87	$18.38
Region 1	8	37.1	36.9	36.8	(1)	39.5	30.01	31.60	18.35	(1)	23.20
Maine	4	37.0	36.7	37.0	(1)	40.0	28.66	30.14	17.83	(1)	21.07
New Hampshire	4	37.3	37.4	(1)	(1)	(1)	34.00	36.01	(1)	(1)	(1)
Region 2: Vermont	45	37.3	37.1	39.7	39.5	36.5	33.39	36.47	18.27	20.18	19.41
Region 3: Massachusetts	22	37.7	37.0	42.4	40.6	(1)	31.23	33.26	25.32	19.47	(1)
Region 4	15	39.2	38.0	44.8	44.9	(1)	34.93	38.11	23.71	21.74	(1)
Rhode Island	4	37.8	36.9	(1)	(1)	(1)	32.14	35.08	(1)	(1)	(1)
Connecticut	7	39.1	38.4	(1)	39.8	(1)	29.88	32.85	(1)	17.23	(1)
New York	4	40.4	38.4	(1)	50.3	(1)	42.54	45.79	(1)	27.80	(1)
Region 5	15	41.7	40.9	49.0	43.7	(1)	28.77	31.19	23.60	17.69	(1)
Pennsylvania	11	42.3	41.3	50.5	45.3	(1)	28.79	30.96	25.04	19.58	(1)
Maryland	4	38.9	39.0	(1)	(1)	------	28.65	32.25	(1)	(1)	------
Region 6	21	38.1	36.3	41.1	41.8	40.8	21.06	25.93	12.96	10.09	15.12
North Carolina	6	35.8	34.9	37.9	38.8	37.8	20.99	24.06	13.23	11.67	15.25
South Carolina	4	43.8	43.7	(1)	45.8	42.2	16.94	26.54	(1)	6.94	13.66
Georgia	11	38.0	36.1	41.3	42.6	40.5	22.84	27.75	14.45	10.35	16.83
Region 7	15	44.1	43.0	47.8	46.6	42.8	28.37	31.06	22.46	20.36	21.15
Wisconsin	6	37.0	36.3	(1)	(1)	(1)	24.56	25.13	(1)	(1)	(1)
Minnesota and South Dakota [2]	9	46.0	45.5	48.2	46.3	43.2	29.39	33.22	22.63	20.47	21.58
Region 8: California	5	36.8	37.1	(1)	(1)	(1)	28.35	32.66	(1)	(1)	(1)

[1] Fewer than 12 employees; no average computed. [2] Includes only 1 finishing plant in South Dakota.

A similar story is told by the frequency distributions of all employees covering the several regions (see table 4). Thus, nearly all of the quarry workers earning under 37.5 cents per hour were concentrated in the States with the lowest averages, the actual percentages found below that figure being 84.8 in the Southern States and 27.9 percent in Pennsylvania and Maryland. If 42.5 be taken as the upper limit, there were still relatively few earning under that figure in the New England States, but the proportion in the Middle Western States amounted to 25.9 percent. However, the percentages were 89.5 in the Southern States and 72.6 in Pennsylvania and Maryland. On the other hand, the number receiving 77.5 cents and over was largely confined to the New England States; the only other States that had a substantial number earning 77.5 cents and over were the Middle Western States.

Nearly all finishing employees earning under 37.5 cents were in the three Southern States, the number of workers found under that limit in this area forming 33.1 percent of the total. Those receiving under 47.5 cents were still relatively few in the New England States, with the actual figures at 7.8 percent in northern New England and 6.8 percent in southern New England. In the remaining regions, on the other hand, the percentages were much larger, the figures being 41.6 percent in the Southern States, 23.1 percent in the Middle Western States, and 22.1 percent in Pennsylvania and Maryland. In Cali-

TABLE 4.—*Cumulative Percentage Distribution of Employees in the Dimension-Granite Industry by Average Hourly Earnings and by Region, August 1937*

Average hourly earnings (in cents)	Quarrying [a]					Finishing					
	Northern New England [1]	Southern New England,[2] including New York	Pennsylvania and Maryland	Southern States [3]	Middle Western States [4]	Northern New England [1]	Southern New England,[2] including New York	Pennsylvania and Maryland	Southern States [3]	Middle Western States [4]	California
10.0 and under 12.5	-------	-------	-------	1.4	-------	-------	-------	-------	0.3	-------	------
12.5 and under 17.5	-------	-------	-------	22.0	-------	-------	-------	-------	3.9	-------	------
17.5 and under 22.5	-------	-------	1.7	35.8	-------	0.1	-------	-------	10.5	(5)	------
22.5 and under 27.5	0.2	-------	2.8	49.6	-------	.5	0.3	3.1	17.5	1.2	------
27.5 and under 32.5	.2	-------	6.7	72.2	-------	1.3	.4	3.1	23.7	2.2	------
32.5 and under 37.5	.7	0.2	27.9	84.8	7.0	1.8	.8	6.1	33.1	5.7	2.2
37.5 and under 42.5	2.5	3.9	72.6	89.5	25.9	6.2	4.8	14.7	36.8	15.1	8.9
42.5 and under 47.5	3.2	5.4	89.4	90.9	31.7	7.8	6.8	22.1	41.6	23.1	11.1
47.5 and under 52.5	6.8	13.7	93.9	93.4	52.7	13.4	14.0	37.4	45.4	33.6	17.8
52.5 and under 57.5	21.2	23.5	95.0	94.5	66.5	16.5	17.2	39.9	49.8	41.6	22.2
57.5 and under 62.5	30.3	37.2	96.1	95.6	75.0	18.9	21.5	46.0	52.0	50.6	26.7
62.5 and under 67.5	39.0	68.2	97.8	95.9	88.4	21.9	28.0	50.9	56.7	60.1	40.0
67.5 and under 72.5	70.2	80.9	97.8	97.0	89.3	24.5	31.2	55.2	62.4	64.5	44.4
72.5 and under 77.5	86.4	88.0	98.9	97.5	92.0	27.2	36.3	63.8	71.1	70.4	48.9
77.5 and under 82.5	88.0	90.0	98.9	97.8	93.3	34.8	39.7	68.1	81.0	76.3	53.3
82.5 and under 87.5	89.6	91.4	98.9	98.3	94.2	35.9	41.6	70.6	85.0	80.4	55.6
87.5 and under 92.5	92.8	92.9	99.4	98.3	98.7	38.2	45.2	73.6	89.2	89.6	57.8
92.5 and under 97.5	93.2	94.1	99.4	98.6	99.6	38.9	46.5	74.2	92.1	91.6	57.8
97.5 and under 102.5	95.2	98.5	100.0	99.4	99.6	85.1	83.8	92.6	97.4	95.1	97.8
102.5 and under 107.5	100.0	100.0	-------	100.0	100.0	91.3	88.1	93.9	98.1	95.8	97.8
107.5 and under 112.5						93.2	89.2	93.9	98.9	98.2	97.8
112.5 and under 125.0						97.7	91.0	98.2	99.8	99.1	100.0
125.0 and under 150.0						99.8	99.9	100.0	100.0	99.7	------
150.0 and over						100.0	100.0	-------	-------	100.0	------

[a] California was excluded, due to small coverage.
[1] Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont.
[2] Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut.
[3] North Carolina, Georgia, and South Carolina.
[4] Wisconsin, Minnesota, and South Dakota.
[5] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

fornia, the proportion was only 11.1 percent. In contrast, the New England States showed the highest percentages earning 97.5 cents and over.

It should be noted, however, that very recently some of the plants in the Southern States, in both branches of the industry, signed union agreements, which increased considerably the average hourly earnings of their employees.

Occupational differences.—There is also considerable variation in the average hourly earnings among the various occupations belonging to each skill. The occupational averages are presented on a regional basis in table 5.

TABLE 5.—*Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings in Dimension-Granite Industry, by Skill, Occupation, and Region, August 1937*

QUARRYING

Skill and occupation	Number of employees	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings	Number of employees	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
	Region 1—Maine and New Hampshire				Region 2—Vermont			
All employees	241	$0.664	39.9	$26.52	316	$0.724	37.1	$26.84
Skilled employees	209	.683	39.8	27.22	221	.779	37.2	29.03
Blacksmiths	19	.807	38.8	31.30	11	.851	37.5	31.97
Channel bar operators	2	(2)	(2)	(2)	29	.744	35.6	26.44
Derrickmen	12	.677	39.8	26.95	16	.691	38.8	26.83
Drillers	22	.668	39.5	26.37	4	(2)	(2)	(2)
Hoist engineers	25	.673	39.6	26.68	19	.711	38.7	27.52
Miscellaneous engineers	9	.711	40.3	28.63	4	(2)	(2)	(2)
Quarrymen	89	.618	39.8	24.61	98	.678	36.4	24.70
Working foremen	16	.909	40.6	36.87	22	1.287	36.7	47.17
Miscellaneous, skilled	15	.703	41.0	28.83	18	.867	39.7	34.43
Semiskilled employees	5	(2)	(2)	(2)	47	.667	35.6	23.72
Bar gang men								
Derrick signalmen					15	.696	34.5	24.05
Truck drivers	2	(2)	(2)	(2)	5	(2)	(2)	(2)
Miscellaneous helpers	2	(2)	(2)	(2)	20	.637	35.4	22.57
Miscellaneous, semiskilled [3]	1	(2)	(2)	(2)	7	(2)	(2)	(2)
Unskilled employees	27	.537	41.0	22.00	48	.524	37.7	19.87
Grouters	5	(2)	(2)	(2)	33	.567	35.3	20.02
Laborers	11	(2)	(2)	(2)	9	(2)	(2)	(2)
Tool runners	8	.528	40.0	21.13	5	(2)	(2)	(2)
Miscellaneous, unskilled	3	(2)	(2)	(2)	1	(2)	(2)	(2)
	Region 3—Massachusetts				Region 4—Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New York [1]			
All employees	272	$0.660	37.2	$24.51	137	$0.639	40.5	$25.87
Skilled employees	216	.689	37.5	25.85	94	.670	40.3	26.99
Blacksmiths	15	.853	37.0	31.55	8	.895	34.0	30.44
Channel bar operators	2	(2)	(2)	(2)	6	.636	35.8	22.74
Derrickmen	11	.680	38.9	26.44	2	(2)	(2)	(2)
Drillers	58	.645	35.9	23.13	25	.659	36.9	24.32
Hoist engineers	25	.720	37.1	26.69	13	.654	42.4	27.72
Miscellaneous engineers	6	.794	36.4	28.92	2	(2)	(2)	(2)
Quarrymen	69	.613	39.1	23.95	22	.554	43.3	24.02
Working foremen	15	.862	37.4	32.25	8	.848	43.4	36.80
Miscellaneous, skilled	15	.783	37.9	29.72	8	(2)	(2)	(2)
Semiskilled employees	17	.613	38.2	23.45	33	.587	40.2	23.59
Bar gang men					23	.576	38.3	22.06
Derrick signalmen	5	(2)	(2)	(2)	4	(2)	(2)	(2)
Truck drivers	4	(2)	(2)	(2)	2	(2)	(2)	(2)
Miscellaneous helpers	3	(2)	(2)	(2)	4	(2)	(2)	(2)
Miscellaneous, semiskilled [3]	5	(2)	(2)	(2)				
Unskilled employees	39	.504	34.9	17.60	10	(2)	(2)	(2)
Grouters								
Laborers	31	.515	34.6	17.82	7	(2)	(2)	(2)
Tool runners	8	.464	36.1	16.75	1	(2)	(2)	(2)
Miscellaneous, unskilled					2	(2)	(2)	(2)

[1] Includes only 1 quarry in New York.
[2] Not enough employees to justify computation of an average.
[3] Includes apprentices and learners.

TABLE 5.—*Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings in Dimension-Granite Industry, by Skill, Occupation, and Region, August 1937*—Continued

QUARRYING—Continued

Skill and occupation	Number of employees	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings	Number of employees	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
	Region 5—Pennsylvania and Maryland				Region 6—North Carolina, Georgia, and South Carolina [4]			
All employees	179	$0.415	46.2	$19.17	363	$0.281	45.9	$12.92
Skilled employees	115	.441	46.6	20.54	205	.317	47.6	15.08
Blacksmiths	4	(2)	(2)	(2)	13	.503	46.5	23.38
Channel bar operators	1	(2)	(2)	(2)	19	.280	44.5	12.46
Derrickmen	1	(2)	(2)	(2)	9	.232	44.9	10.43
Drillers	21	.438	43.8	19.19	19	.196	50.9	9.96
Hoist engineers	2	(2)	(2)	(2)	9	.302	48.3	14.58
Miscellaneous engineers					6	.398	50.7	20.14
Quarrymen	73	.406	46.2	18.76	70	.202	46.1	9.33
Working foremen	5	(2)	(2)	(2)	25	.565	48.4	27.32
Miscellaneous, skilled	8	(2)	(2)	(2)	35	.387	50.2	19.41
Semiskilled employees	55	.380	45.3	17.20	61	.239	43.7	10.45
Bar gang men	24	.371	41.4	15.37	10	(2)	(2)	(2)
Derrick signalmen	1	(2)	(2)	(2)	2	(2)	(2)	(2)
Truck drivers	14	.369	47.6	17.55	11	.325	41.0	13.32
Miscellaneous helpers	4	(2)	(2)	(2)	29	.191	49.8	9.51
Miscellaneous, semiskilled [3]	12	.403	52.3	21.06	9	(2)	(2)	(2)
Unskilled employees	9	(2)	(2)	(2)	97	.226	43.8	9.92
Grouters	1	(2)	(2)	(2)	12	.190	42.0	7.96
Laborers	5	(2)	(2)	(2)	63	.228	45.1	10.26
Tool runners	1	(2)	(2)	(2)	10	.196	44.6	8.72
Miscellaneous, unskilled	2	(2)	(2)	(2)	12	.289	38.5	11.13
	Region 7—Wisconsin, Minnesota, and South Dakota				Region 8—California			
All employees	224	$0.540	46.9	$25.34	9	(2)	(2)	(2)
Skilled employees	148	.500	46.2	27.70	8	(2)	(2)	(2)
Blacksmiths	17	.763	43.2	32.98				
Channel bar operators	35	.608	46.9	28.48				
Derrickmen								
Drillers	50	.515	45.6	23.45	5	(2)	(2)	(2)
Hoist engineers	10	.576	50.7	29.19				
Miscellaneous engineers	6	.454	57.8	26.20				
Quarrymen	2	(2)	(2)	(2)				
Working foremen	20	.759	48.5	36.78	3	(2)	(2)	(2)
Miscellaneous, skilled	8	(2)	(2)	(2)				
Semiskilled employees	27	.470	46.5	21.89	1	(2)	(2)	(2)
Bar gang men	6	(2)	(2)	(2)				
Derrick signalmen	4	(2)	(2)	(2)				
Truck drivers	1	(2)	(2)	(2)				
Miscellaneous helpers	10	(2)	(2)	(2)	1	(2)	(2)	(2)
Miscellaneous, semiskilled [3]	6	(2)	(2)	(2)				
Unskilled employees	49	.407	49.5	20.13				
Grouters								
Laborers	47	.408	49.6	20.27				
Tool runners	2	(2)	(2)	(2)				
Miscellaneous, unskilled								

[2] Not enough employees to justify computation of an average.

[3] Includes apprentices and learners.

[4] Includes only 1 quarry in South Carolina.

TABLE 5.—*Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings in Dimension-Granite Industry, by Skill, Occupation, and Region, August 1937*—Continued

FINISHING

Skill and occupation	Number of employees	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings	Number of employees	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
	Region 1—Maine and New Hampshire				Region 2—Vermont			
All employees	368	$0.809	37.1	$30.01	880	$0.895	37.3	$33.39
Skilled employees	314	.857	36.9	31.60	723	.984	37.1	36.47
Bed setters					15	1.018	39.4	40.08
Blacksmiths	15	.996	35.9	35.77	21	1.004	35.2	35.35
Boxers	2	(1)	(1)	(1)	19	.812	39.1	31.72
Carbo sawyers	2	(1)	(1)	(1)	13	.959	36.1	34.60
Carvers					12	1.295	38.3	49.59
Cranemen	13	.721	41.9	30.18	37	.817	40.1	32.77
Cutters	123	1.004	35.4	35.55	339	1.002	36.2	36.24
Drillers	1	(1)	(1)	(1)				
Foremen	9	1.078	42.3	45.57	3	(1)	(1)	(1)
Lumpers	12	.739	39.5	29.21	54	.804	38.4	30.83
Machinists	4	(1)	(1)	(1)	3	(1)	(1)	(1)
Paving cutters	86	.588	37.4	22.01				
Polishers	4	(1)	(1)	(1)	67	1.040	37.7	39.22
Sandblasters	3	(1)	(1)	(1)	51	1.077	37.5	40.33
Sawyers	9	1.009	36.3	36.67	15	.988	40.8	40.32
Surfacers	18	1.041	36.1	37.54	64	1.012	36.1	36.51
Incapacitated employees [2]	10	.906	33.4	30.27	4	(1)	(1)	(1)
Miscellaneous, skilled	3	(1)	(1)	(1)	6	(1)	(1)	(1)
Semiskilled employees	22	.499	36.8	18.35	58	.461	39.7	18.27
Learners					8	(1)	(1)	(1)
Sawyer's helpers	5	(1)	(1)	(1)	2	(1)	(1)	(1)
Tool grinders	12	.490	36.8	18.05	43	.483	38.2	18.44
Truck drivers	1	(1)	(1)	(1)				
Miscellaneous helpers	4	(1)	(1)	(1)	3	(1)	(1)	(1)
Miscellaneous, semiskilled					2	(1)	(1)	(1)
Unskilled employees	9	(1)	(1)	(1)	39	.511	39.5	20.18
Laborers	7	(1)	(1)	(1)	19	.538	38.2	20.55
Tool runners	1	(1)	(1)	(1)	4	(1)	(1)	(1)
Miscellaneous, unskilled	1	(1)	(1)	(1)	16	.502	40.8	20.51
Apprentices	23	.588	39.5	23.20	60	.532	36.5	19.41
Cutters' apprentices, first year	7	.402	40.0	16.07	15	.398	34.6	13.77
Cutters' apprentices, second year	2	(1)	(1)	(1)	8	.475	38.4	18.22
Cutters' apprentices, third year	4	(1)	(1)	(1)	15	.649	36.0	23.36
Cutters' apprentices, miscellaneous	3	(1)	(1)	(1)				
Miscellaneous apprentices	7	(1)	(1)	(1)	22	.560	37.5	20.99
	Region 3—Massachusetts				Region 4—Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New York			
All employees	571	$0.828	37.7	$31.23	326	$0.891	39.2	$34.93
Skilled employees	470	.898	37.0	33.26	259	1.003	38.0	38.11
Bed setters	2	(1)	(1)	(1)	2	(1)	(1)	(1)
Blacksmiths	16	.919	33.3	30.58	17	1.076	35.0	37.68
Boxers	2	(1)	(1)	(1)	1	(1)	(1)	(1)
Carbo sawyers					7	1.159	36.3	42.06
Carvers	4	(1)	(1)	(1)	5	(1)	(1)	(1)
Cranemen	26	.730	40.1	29.30	7	.689	46.3	31.85
Cutters	233	.967	35.8	34.63	127	1.097	36.5	40.09
Drillers	14	.581	40.3	23.42	18	.546	39.6	21.59
Foremen	8	1.006	39.1	39.36	10	.960	41.7	40.00
Lumpers	11	.762	38.9	29.64	3	(1)	(1)	(1)
Machinists	9	.932	41.1	38.31	7	.674	46.4	31.29
Paving cutters	59	.776	37.7	29.30	4	(1)	(1)	(1)
Polishers	23	1.003	33.7	33.74	18	1.184	35.8	42.38
Sandblasters	6	.976	29.5	28.79	3	(1)	(1)	(1)
Sawyers	25	.924	40.9	37.83	9	1.057	44.5	47.04
Surfacers	14	1.032	35.8	36.99	14	1.136	37.3	42.40
Incapacitated employees [2]	4	(1)	(1)	(1)	1	(1)	(1)	(1)
Miscellaneous, skilled	14	.789	46.0	36.28	6	(1)	(1)	(1)

[1] Not enough employees to justify computation of an average.

[2] Workers who are not as proficient as regular employees because of old age or physical disability.

TABLE 5.—*Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings in Dimension-Granite Industry, by Skill, Occupation, and Region, August 1937*—Continued

FINISHING—Continued

Skill and occupation	Number of employees	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings	Number of employees	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
	Region 3—Massachusetts—Continued				Region 4—Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New York—Continued			
Semiskilled employees	42	$0.597	42.4	$25.32	24	$0.529	44.8	$23.71
Learners	3	(1)	(1)	(1)	1	(1)	(1)	(1)
Sawyer's helpers	14	.560	44.1	24.71	3	(1)	(1)	(1)
Tool grinders	4	(1)	(1)	(1)	1	(1)	(1)	(1)
Truck drivers	11	.633	38.3	24.21	9	.571	45.3	25.91
Miscellaneous helpers	8	(1)	(1)	(1)	4	(1)	(1)	(1)
Miscellaneous, semiskilled	2	(1)	(1)	(1)	6	(1)	(1)	(1)
Unskilled employees	48	.480	40.6	19.47	35	.484	44.9	21.74
Laborers	39	.473	41.5	19.64	26	.513	45.1	23.16
Tool runners	4	(1)	(1)	(1)	6	.322	38.7	12.47
Miscellaneous, unskilled	5	(1)	(1)	(1)	3	(1)	(1)	(1)
Apprentices	11	(1)	(1)	(1)	8	(1)	(1)	(1)
Cutters' apprentices, first year	5	(1)	(1)	(1)	2	(1)	(1)	(1)
Cutters' apprentices, second year	1	(1)	(1)	(1)	3	(1)	(1)	(1)
Cutters' apprentices, third year	2	(1)	(1)	(1)	3	(1)	(1)	(1)
Cutters' apprentices, miscellaneous	1	(1)	(1)	(1)				
Miscellaneous apprentices	2	(1)	(1)	(1)				
	Region 5—Pennsylvania and Maryland				Region 6—North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia			
All employees	163	$0.690	41.7	$28.77	646	$0.552	38.1	$21.06
Skilled employees	129	.763	40.9	31.19	414	.714	36.3	25.93
Bed setters	2	(1)	(1)	(1)	5	(1)	(1)	(1)
Blacksmiths	7	.689	39.3	27.06	20	.685	35.4	24.24
Boxers	1	(1)	(1)	(1)	11	.366	41.7	15.25
Carbo sawyers	2	(1)	(1)	(1)	2	(1)	(1)	(1)
Carvers					2	(1)	(1)	(1)
Cranemen	4	(1)	(1)	(1)	13	.455	37.3	16.97
Cutters	65	.878	38.6	33.92	174	.801	36.2	29.00
Drillers	1	(1)	(1)	(1)	16	.352	35.3	12.42
Foremen	6	.944	43.3	40.92	13	.970	43.4	42.11
Lumpers					5	(1)	(1)	(1)
Machinists					3	(1)	(1)	(1)
Paving cutters					36	.750	24.7	18.53
Polishers	17	.721	43.4	31.28	24	.655	43.4	28.41
Sandblasters	8	.610	43.8	26.74	30	.774	34.2	26.49
Sawyers	3	(1)	(1)	(1)	7	.557	33.7	18.79
Surfacers	5	(1)	(1)	(1)	42	.731	36.6	26.76
Incapacitated employees [2]	2	(1)	(1)	(1)	2	(1)	(1)	(1)
Miscellaneous, skilled	6	(1)	(1)	(1)	9	(1)	(1)	(1)
Semiskilled employees	14	.482	49.0	23.60	47	.316	41.1	12.96
Learners	1	(1)	(1)	(1)	2	(1)	(1)	(1)
Sawyers' helpers	2	(1)	(1)	(1)				
Tool grinders					5	(1)	(1)	(1)
Truck drivers	5	(1)	(1)	(1)	6	.282	46.3	13.06
Miscellaneous helpers	5	(1)	(1)	(1)	25	.299	41.7	12.45
Miscellaneous, semiskilled	1	(1)	(1)	(1)	9	(1)	(1)	(1)
Unskilled employees	15	.405	43.7	17.69	107	.241	41.8	10.09
Laborers	14	.417	43.4	18.09	88	.235	43.5	10.24
Tool runners					10	.248	37.3	9.23
Miscellaneous, unskilled	1	(1)	(1)	(1)	9	(1)	(1)	(1)
Apprentices	5	(1)	(1)	(1)	78	.371	40.8	15.12
Cutters' apprentices, first year	1	(1)	(1)	(1)	12	.265	41.3	10.93
Cutters' apprentices, second year	3	(1)	(1)	(1)	18	.382	42.6	16.28
Cutters' apprentices, third year					14	.457	42.0	19.20
Cutters' apprentices, miscellaneous					10	(1)	(1)	(1)
Miscellaneous apprentices	1	(1)	(1)	(1)	24	.345	41.7	14.38

[1] Not enough employees to justify the computation of an average.

[2] Workers who are not as proficient as regular employees because of old age or physical disability.

TABLE 5.—*Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings in Dimension-Granite Industry, by Skill, Occupation, and Region, August 1937*—Continued

FINISHING—Continued

Skill and occupation	Number of employees	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings	Number of employees	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
	Region 7—Wisconsin, Minnesota, and South Dakota [3]				Region 8—California			
All employees	670	$0.644	44.1	$28.37	45	$0.769	36.8	$28.35
Skilled employees	482	.722	43.0	31.06	31	.880	37.1	32.66
Bed setters	22	.540	45.6	24.61				
Blacksmiths	17	.813	40.7	33.07	2	(1)	(1)	(1)
Boxers	15	.578	46.9	27.13	1	(1)	(1)	(1)
Carbo sawyers	23	.672	45.5	30.53				
Carvers	8	1.052	41.7	43.85				
Cranemen	24	.564	49.7	28.04	1	(1)	(1)	(1)
Cutters	113	.861	41.6	35.82	15	.971	32.3	31.33
Foremen	7	.926	50.1	46.42	2	(1)	(1)	(1)
Lumpers	14	.452	42.5	19.22				
Machinists	4	(1)	(1)	(1)				
Paving cutters	22	.683	21.7	14.83				
Polishers	86	.701	42.9	30.08	6	.979	44.7	43.73
Sandblasters	20	.730	45.6	33.32				
Sawyers	40	.613	45.2	27.71	3	(1)	(1)	(1)
Surfacers	22	.740	40.8	30.20				
Incapacitated employees [2]	4	(1)	(1)	(1)				
Miscellaneous, skilled	41	.763	47.3	36.07	1	(1)	(1)	(1)
Semiskilled employees	92	.469	47.8	22.46	4	(1)	(1)	(1)
Learners	7	(1)	(1)	(1)				
Sawyers' helpers	26	.505	46.8	23.64				
Tool grinders	2	(1)	(1)	(1)				
Truck drivers	3	(1)	(1)	(1)				
Miscellaneous helpers	41	.437	48.0	20.97	2	(1)	(1)	(1)
Miscellaneous, semiskilled	13	.521	50.7	26.39	2	(1)	(1)	(1)
Unskilled employees	73	.437	46.6	20.36	7	(1)	(1)	(1)
Laborers	54	.438	47.0	20.58	7	(1)	(1)	(1)
Tool runners	8	.400	43.3	17.29				
Miscellaneous, unskilled	11	(1)	(1)	(1)				
Apprentices	23	.495	42.8	21.15	3	(1)	(1)	(1)
Cutters' apprentices, first year	10	.330	43.8	14.45	1	(1)	(1)	(1)
Cutters' apprentices, second year	2	(1)	(1)	(1)				
Cutters' apprentices, third year	6	.716	42.4	30.39	1	(1)	(1)	(1)
Miscellaneous apprentices	5	(1)	(1)	(1)	1	(1)	(1)	(1)

[1] Not enough employees to justify the computation of an average.

[2] Workers who are not as proficient as regular employees because of old age or physical disability.

[3] Includes only 1 finishing plant in South Dakota.

Data by Product

If the data are taken for the New England States including New York (see table 6), the highest average hourly earnings in quarries are shown in those producing monumental stone. If the composite product classifications are omitted, the next highest average earnings per hour appear in quarries making building stone, while the lowest averages are reported in quarries producing paving and curbing stone. It should be noted, however, that the wage differences between the monumental and building-stone plants are greater than those between the building-stone and paving- and curbing-stone plants. The existence of higher average hourly earnings in quarries producing monumental stone over those with building stone is also substantiated by the data for Pennsylvania and Maryland.

TABLE 6.—*Average Hourly Earnings of Employees in Dimension-Granite Industry, By Product and Region,*[1] *August 1937*

Region and product	Quarrying						Finishing					
	Number of employees			Average hourly earnings			Number of employees			Average hourly earnings		
	Total	Skilled	Other	All	Skilled	Other	Total	Skilled	Other	All	Skilled	Other
New England,[2] including New York:												
Building	210	168	42	$0.652	$0.684	$0.519	448	346	102	$0.839	$0.953	$0.490
Monumental	405	289	116	.727	.778	.600	1,103	913	190	.919	1.005	.521
Paving and curbing	132	109	23	.617	.642	.498	151	148	3	.655	.659	(3)
Building and monumental	100	72	28	.613	.629	.572	151	125	26	.808	.884	.482
Building and paving and curbing	119	102	17	.696	.717	.569	292	234	58	.823	.890	.572
Pennsylvania and Maryland:												
Building	146	93	53	.409	.433	.367	11	10	1	(3)	(3)	(3)
Monumental	33	22	11	.444	.477	(3)	132	103	29	.648	.717	.426
Building and paving							20	16	4	.805	(3)	(3)
Southern States: [4]												
Building	17	11	6	(3)	(3)	(3)	29	25	4	.667	.748	(3)
Monumental	224	143	81	.249	.286	.182	367	199	168	.515	.723	.290
Paving and curbing							32	21	11	.486	.633	(3)
Building and monumental	114	43	71	.368	.472	.301	213	165	48	.620	.707	.345
Building and paving and curbing	8	8		(3)	(3)		5	4	1	(3)	(3)	(3)
Middle Western States:[5]												
Building	10	6	4	(3)	(3)	(3)	17	16	1	(3)	(3)	(3)
Monumental	94	62	32	.547	.594	.451	279	219	60	.705	.764	.500
Building and monumental	95	58	37	.544	.634	.417	315	192	123	.603	.706	.445
Monumental and paving and curbing	25	22	3	.526	.542	(3)	59	55	4	.611	.625	(3)

[1] Because of the small coverage, California has been omitted from this tabulation.
[2] Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut.
[3] Fewer than 18 employees; no average computed.
[4] North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia.
[5] Wisconsin, Minnesota, and South Dakota.

A somewhat different situation is found in the finishing branch of the industry. With respect to the data for the New England States including New York, the highest average earnings per hour were also shown in plants producing monumental stone. Likewise, if the composite product classifications are disregarded, the next highest average hourly earnings were in establishments working on building stone, with the lowest averages appearing in plants making paving and curbing stone. On the other hand, the differences found here (unlike in quarrying) between monumental and building stone were much smaller than those between building and paving and curbing stone. In the Southern States, furthermore, finishing plants making monumental stone had lower average hourly earnings than establishments producing building stone, although the lowest averages were still found in the plants working on paving and curbing stone.

Data by Unionization

Quarrying.—With one exception, all the trade-union quarries in the sample were located in the New England States. The number of

trade-union establishments found within this area was 24, which may be compared with a total of 83 quarries covered.[7]

Every one of the 24 trade-union establishments in the New England area had an agreement with the Quarry Workers' International Union of North America. That union extends its trade jurisdiction to the following crafts: Quarrymen; quarry and paving-cutter blacksmiths; derrickmen; engineers and firemen; steam-drill and air-drill runners; laborers; soft-stone quarrymen and channelers; rubbers, lumpers, and boxers; riggers of derricks, cranes, or other devices used in handling stone; and stone derrickmen wherever employed.

Considering all employees, there was very little difference in the average hourly earnings between the trade-union and non-trade-union establishments in the New England States including New York, the respective averages being 68.6 and 69.3 cents. For skilled workers, however, the average in trade-union plants was 68.9 cents, as compared with 74.1 cents in non-trade-union shops. Examination of the data indicates that the higher average in non-trade-union establishments was due entirely to the influence of a few plants that operated under an employee-representation plan. On the other hand, in the case of semiskilled and unskilled workers, the average (58.8 cents per hour) in the trade-union plants exceeded that (54.4 cents) in the non-trade-union establishments.

Finishing.—Of the 146 finishing plants in the sample, 68 were trade-union establishments.[7] Most of the trade-union plants were located in the New England States including New York, which accounted for 58 out of a total coverage of 90 establishments in that area. Very few trade-union plants were found in Pennsylvania and Maryland (3 out of 15) and the Southern States (2 out of 21), but in the Middle Western States there were 5 trade-union shops out of a total of 15 plants. No trade-union establishments were included in the coverage for California.

By far the great majority of the trade-union establishments had an agreement with the Granite Cutters' International Association of America. The trade jurisdiction of this union covered the following:

> * * * cutting, carving, dressing, lettering and all metal lettering, sandblasting, sawing, and setting all granite (natural and artificial), and hard stone on which granite cutters' tools are used. This includes from the roughest of street work and rock-faced ashlar to the finest of molded work, carving statuary, machine-cutting, turning, rubbing, polishing or dressing, sandblasting (including work of preparing and placing of composition necessary), sawing and setting of any kind of granite (natural and artificial) and other hard stone on which granite-cutting tools or machines are used, and making up, sharpening, or dressing such tools either by hand or machine.

A considerable number of the trade-union plants in Vermont, however, also had a contract with the Quarry Workers' International Union of

[7] As already indicated, since the survey was made, additional plants have signed union agreements.

North America. Furthermore, several of the trade-union shops had an agreement with the International Paving Cutters' Union of the United States of America and Canada, and one of them had a contract with the International Union of Operating Engineers.

In the New England States including New York, the average hourly earnings were greater in trade-union than in non-trade-union establishments. Taking all employees, the trade-union average was 92.9 cents as compared with 76.0 cents for non-trade-union shops, the respective averages for skilled being 96.4 and 89.3 cents and for semiskilled, unskilled, and apprentices 54.0 and 50.9 cents. A similar difference was found in the Middle Western States, where the trade-union average was 75.5 and the non-trade-union average 63.0 cents for all employees, with the respective averages for the skilled workers amounting to 78.5 and 71.1 cents.

Color Differentials

One of the principal reasons for the low wages in quarries in the Southern States is the presence of a relatively large number of colored workers. This is especially true of Georgia and South Carolina combined, where the majority of each group according to skill was composed of Negro employees.

Wherever comparisons are possible in table 7, it is seen that the colored workers received less in average hourly earnings than the white employees. The differences were less marked in the case of semiskilled and unskilled employees, as against the skilled workers. Thus, for the three Southern States combined, the difference in favor of the white employees amounted to only 5.3 cents for semiskilled and 5.7 cents for unskilled, as compared with 25.3 cents for the skilled group.

It should also be noted that the average hourly earnings of the colored employees in each group according to skill were practically the same, namely, about 22 cents per hour. In other words, it appears that, while many Negro workers performed labor that is ordinarily classed as skilled in this branch of the industry, they received the same average hourly earnings as semiskilled and unskilled employees.

A large number of colored workers were also found in the Maryland quarries. For the skilled group of 87 employees, only 21 were white and 66 were colored; their average hourly earnings were, respectively, 48.0 and 41.1 cents.

TABLE 7.—*Average Hourly Earnings of Employees in Quarries of Dimension-Granite Industry in Southern States, by Skill and Color, August 1937*

Skill and color	Number of employees			Average hourly earnings		
	Total	North Carolina	Georgia and South Carolina [1]	Total	North Carolina	Georgia and South Carolina [1]
Skilled employees:						
Total	205	49	156	$0.317	$0.466	$0.279
White	85	37	48	.470	.498	.450
Colored	120	12	108	.217	.354	.206
Semiskilled employees:						
Total	61	25	36	.239	.316	.203
White	24	15	9	.275	.330	(2)
Colored	37	10	27	.222	(2)	.199
Unskilled employees:						
Total	97	52	45	.226	.287	.168
White	29	22	7	.268	.304	(2)
Colored	68	30	38	.211	.276	.165

[1] Includes only 1 quarry in South Carolina.

[2] Fewer than 12 employees; no average computed.

Relatively few colored employees were found among the skilled workers in finishing plants in the three Southern States, the actual number being 28 out of a total of 414 employees. The proportion of colored workers in the semiskilled and unskilled groups, however, was much larger, the actual figures being 26 out of 47 for the former and 72 out of 107 for the latter.

For each of the groups according to skill, the colored employees averaged considerably less than the white workers in hourly earnings. The respective figures were 31.8 and 74.8 cents for skilled, 26.6 and 37.4 cents for semiskilled, and 22.1 and 29.2 cents for unskilled employees. The difference between colored and white workers was considerably greater for the skilled workers than in the case of semiskilled and unskilled employees.

The only other States where colored workers were employed in finishing plants were Maryland and Pennsylvania, but the numbers involved were not sufficient to justify the computation of averages.

Weekly Hours

Full-Time Weekly Hours

Classification of quarries according to the full-time hours worked per week shows that 2 worked 35 hours and 48 worked 40 hours. Of these 50 plants, approximately two-thirds of which were located in the New England States, 24 were trade-union and 26 non-trade-union establishments. Among the remaining quarries, there were 9 at 44 hours, 5 at 45 hours, 11 at 48 hours, 5 at 50 hours, 1 at 54 hours, and 2 at 60 hours. With one exception, all of these establishments were non-trade-union plants and were scattered throughout all except two of the regions covered.

By far the greatest number of finishing plants worked 40 hours per week. Thus, classified on the basis of full-time hours, there were 3

plants with 35 hours, 119 with 40 hours, 19 with 44 hours, 1 with 45 hours, 3 with 48 hours, and 1 with 50 hours. All but 2 of the 68 trade-union establishments covered in the sample had a workweek of 40 hours or less.

Actual Weekly Hours

It has already been stated that the average hours worked by all employees in the quarrying branch of the industry amounted to 41.8 per week. According to the frequency distribution presented in table 8, only about 9 percent of the employees worked less than 32 hours per week. More than one-third of the workers (36.4 percent) had a week of less than 40 hours, and about one-fifth of them (19.7 percent) worked exactly 40 hours. Almost 25 percent of the employees, however, worked 48 hours and above.

For all employees in finishing plants average hours were 39.1 per week. Twelve percent of the employees worked under 32 hours. One-third of the employees worked under 40 hours, but nearly four-tenths (38.7 percent) had a workweek of exactly 40 hours. Only 11.7 percent of the employees worked 48 hours or more.

TABLE 8.—*Distribution of Employees in Dimension-Granite Industry by Weekly Hours, August 1937*

Weekly hours	Quarrying			Finishing		
	Number of employees	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Number of employees	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage
Under 24 hours	56	3.2	3.2	165	4.5	4.5
24 and under 32 hours	93	5.4	8.6	277	7.5	12.0
32 and under 36 hours	275	15.8	24.4	384	10.5	22.5
36 and under 40 hours	210	12.0	36.4	396	10.8	33.3
Exactly 40 hours	342	19.7	56.1	1,420	38.7	72.0
Over 40 and under 44 hours	150	8.6	64.7	186	5.1	77.1
44 and under 48 hours	182	10.4	75.1	410	11.2	88.3
48 and under 56 hours	282	16.2	91.3	318	8.6	96.9
56 hours and over	151	8.7	100.0	113	3.1	100.0
Total	1,741	100.0		3,669	100.0	

There was hardly any difference in the average weekly hours according to skill, as was seen from table 3. However, the average hours per week varied geographically. As table 9 indicates, the average weekly hours in quarries ranged from 37.1 hours in Vermont to 51.0 hours in South Dakota. On the whole, the lowest averages were found in the New England States including New York, while the highest average appeared in the remaining regions covered.

In the finishing plants the average hours per week ranged from 35.8 hours in North Carolina to 46.0 hours in Minnesota and South Dakota combined. In the New England States including New York, the average weekly hours were 40 or less. Among the remaining States, the only ones to exceed 40 hours were Pennsylvania, South Carolina, and Minnesota and South Dakota combined.

TABLE 9.—*Cumulative Percentage Distribution of Employees in Dimension-Granite Industry by Weekly Hours and by Region, August 1937*

Weekly hours	Quarrying [a]					Finishing					
	Northern New England [1]	Southern New England,[2] including New York	Pennsylvania and Maryland	Southern States[3]	Middle Western States[4]	Northern New England [1]	Southern New England,[2] including New York	Pennsylvania and Maryland	Southern States[3]	Middle Western States[4]	California
Under 24	2.3	2.7	4.5	4.7	3.1	3.2	5.4	1.8	7.7	3.3	4.4
24 and under 32	5.4	13.0	6.7	8.3	10.7	12.3	11.6	8.0	19.5	6.3	6.7
32 and under 36	40.8	19.6	10.6	19.8	11.6	26.8	20.6	12.3	30.3	10.1	48.9
36 and under 40	46.0	51.8	14.5	23.7	24.1	39.3	35.8	19.0	43.3	11.3	51.1
Exactly 40	74.7	77.5	32.4	28.4	32.6	90.6	83.4	56.4	66.4	31.3	71.1
Over 40 and under 44	90.1	81.9	37.4	33.6	40.6	95.4	86.6	61.3	69.8	41.0	77.8
44 and under 48	94.8	94.1	56.4	46.8	51.3	97.5	91.5	83.4	86.7	69.0	93.3
48 and under 56	99.5	99.5	79.9	80.7	82.1	99.0	97.9	93.3	96.4	93.0	97.8
56 and over	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[a] California was excluded, due to small coverage.
[1] Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont.
[2] Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut.
[3] North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia.
[4] Wisconsin, Minnesota, and South Dakota.

Weekly Earnings

As noted before, the average weekly earnings of all employees in quarries were $22.47. Looking at the frequency distribution (see table 10), it will be seen that more than one-fifth of the workers (21.0 percent) earned under $15 and more than one-third (35.8 percent) received less than $20 per week. As many as 85 percent of the employees earned under $30, thus leaving less than one-sixth of them receiving as much as $30 and over.

The average weekly earnings of all employees in finishing plants amounted to $29.50. About one-tenth of the workers earned under $15, about one-fifth under $20, slightly more than one-third under $25, and nearly one-half under $30. It will also be seen that more than one-fourth of the employees received $40 and over, with 6.5 percent earning as much as $50 or more.

TABLE 10.—*Distribution of Employees in Dimension-Granite Industry by Weekly Earnings, August 1937*

Weekly earnings	Quarrying			Finishing		
	Number of employees	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Number of employees	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage
Under $5	28	1.6	1.6	29	0.8	0.8
$5 and under $10	137	7.9	9.5	122	3.3	4.1
$10 and under $15	200	11.5	21.0	237	6.5	10.6
$15 and under $20	258	14.8	35.8	400	10.9	21.5
$20 and under $25	477	27.4	63.2	564	15.3	36.8
$25 and under $30	376	21.6	84.8	454	12.4	49.2
$30 and under $35	127	7.3	92.1	526	14.4	63.6
$35 and under $40	63	3.6	95.7	383	10.4	74.0
$40 and under $45	39	2.2	97.9	715	19.5	93.5
$45 and under $50	9	.5	98.4	97	2.6	96.1
$50 and under $55	23	1.4	99.8	108	3.0	99.1
$55 and under $60				19	.5	99.6
$60 and under $65	4	.2	100.0	8	.2	99.8
$65 and over				7	.2	100.0
Total	1,741	100.0		3,669	100.0	

Data by Skill

In view of the fact that the average weekly hours differed but little according to skill, the average weekly earnings reflect largely the differences in average earnings per hour. Thus, the average weekly earnings of quarry workers for all States amounted to $24.66 for skilled, $18.67 for semiskilled, and $16.24 for unskilled, the difference between the skilled and semiskilled being more than twice as large as the one between semiskilled and unskilled.

According to the frequency distributions of employees as to weekly earnings shown in table 11, the workers earning under $15 per week formed 13.9 percent of the skilled, as against 30.9 percent of the semiskilled and 43.0 percent of the unskilled. Likewise, the proportion receiving less than $20 was 24.2 percent for skilled, which may be compared with 56.5 percent for semiskilled and 68.1 percent for unskilled. On the other hand, while slightly more than one-fifth (20.2 percent) of the skilled employees received $30 and over, there were only 6.1 percent among the semiskilled and 1.4 percent among the unskilled who were found in that classification. In fact, not a single one of the semiskilled or unskilled workers earned $40 and above.

For employees in finishing plants, the average earnings per week for all States amounted to $32.79 for skilled, $20.44 for semiskilled, $18.38 for apprentices, and $16.87 for unskilled employees. In other words, while the differences were relatively small among the last three groups of workers, a considerable margin existed between the skilled and semiskilled employees.

The number of workers earning under $20 formed only 10.9 percent of the skilled, which may be compared with 45.9 percent for semiskilled, 62.8 percent for unskilled, and 62.6 percent for apprentices. Taking $30 as the upper limit, the percentage was 36.1 for skilled employees, as against 90.4 for semiskilled, 97.3 for unskilled, and 89.6 for apprentices. About one-third (33.6 percent) of the skilled employees earned $40 and over, but hardly any of the remaining employees were found in that classification.

TABLE 11.—*Distribution of Employees in Dimension-Granite Industry by Weekly Earnings and by Skill, August 1937*

QUARRYING

Weekly earnings	Skilled employees			Semiskilled employees[1]			Unskilled employees		
	Number	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Number	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Number	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage
Under $5	.14	1.2	1.2	5	2.0	2.0	9	3.2	3.2
$5 and under $10	64	5.2	6.4	29	11.8	13.8	44	15.8	19.0
$10 and under $15	91	7.5	13.9	42	17.1	30.9	67	24.0	43.0
$15 and under $20	125	10.3	24.2	63	25.6	56.5	70	25.1	68.1
$20 and under $25	350	28.8	53.0	56	22.8	79.3	71	25.4	93.5
$25 and under $30	326	26.8	79.8	36	14.6	93.9	14	5.1	98.6
$30 and under $35	112	9.2	89.0	11	4.5	98.4	4	1.4	100.0
$35 and under $40	59	4.8	93.8	4	1.6	100.0	------	------	------
$40 and under $45	39	3.2	97.0	------	------	------	------	------	------
$45 and under $50	9	.8	97.8	------	------	------	------	------	------
$50 and under $60	23	1.9	99.7	------	------	------	------	------	------
$60 and over	4	.3	100.0	------	------	------	------	------	------
Total	1,216	100.0	------	246	100.0	------	279	100.0	------

[1] Includes apprentices and learners.

FINISHING

Weekly earnings	Skilled employees			Semiskilled employees			Unskilled employees			Apprentices		
	Number	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Number	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Number	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Number	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage
Under $5	15	0.5	0.5	2	0.7	0.7	9	2.7	2.7	3	1.4	1.4
$5 and under $10	39	1.4	1.9	24	7.9	8.6	46	13.8	16.5	13	6.2	7.6
$10 and under $15	81	2.9	4.8	39	12.9	21.5	69	20.7	37.2	48	22.7	30.3
$15 and under $20	173	6.1	10.9	74	24.4	45.9	85	25.6	62.8	68	32.3	62.6
$20 and under $25	343	12.2	23.1	88	29.0	74.9	91	27.3	90.1	42	19.9	82.5
$25 and under $30	368	13.0	36.1	47	15.5	90.4	24	7.2	97.3	15	7.1	89.6
$30 and under $35	485	17.2	53.3	18	6.0	96.4	5	1.5	98.8	18	8.5	98.1
$35 and under $40	369	13.1	66.4	7	2.3	98.7	3	.9	99.7	4	1.9	100.0
$40 and under $45	714	25.3	91.7	1	.3	99.0	------	------	99.7	------	------	------
$45 and under $50	94	3.3	95.0	2	.7	99.7	1	.3	100.0	------	------	------
$50 and under $55	107	3.8	98.8	1	.3	100.0	------	------	------	------	------	------
$55 and under $60	19	.7	99.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
$60 and under $65	8	.3	99.8	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
$65 and over	7	.2	100.0	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Total	2,822	100.0	------	303	100.0	------	333	100.0	------	211	100.0	------

Geographical Differences

As in the case of average earnings per hour, the average weekly earnings varied widely on a geographical basis, as was indicated in table 3.

The same story is told by the frequency distributions of all employees from the several regions, which may be seen from table 12. Thus, in quarries, while relatively few workers earned less than $15 in the New England States including New York and in the Middle Western States, the percentages falling under that limit amounted to 22.3

percent in Pennsylvania and Maryland and 74.4 percent in the Southern States. If $20 is taken as the upper limit, the percentages were 11.5 in northern New England, 16.6 in southern New England including New York, 29.9 in the Middle Western States, 57.5 in Pennsylvania and Maryland, and 88.2 in the Southern States. In contrast to these figures, it will be seen that, while 18.9 percent in northern New England, 17.1 percent in southern New England including New York, and 28.6 percent in the Middle Western States received $30 and over, there were only 3.9 percent in Pennsylvania and Maryland and 4.7 percent in the Southern States earning that amount or above.

About 12 percent of the workers in finishing plants in the New England States including New York earned under $20 per week, which may be compared with 20.7 percent in the Middle Western States, 22.2 percent in California, 23.3 percent in Pennsylvania and Maryland, and 52.6 percent in the Southern States. If $30 is taken as the upper limit, the percentages were 36.7 in northern New England, 39.1 in southern New England including New York, 54.6 in Pennsylvania and Maryland, 55.6 in California, 60.9 in the Middle Western States, and 73.5 in the Southern States. On the other hand, while the number receiving $40 and over amounted to more than one-third in the New England States including New York, the corresponding proportions were around one-fifth in Pennsylvania and Maryland, one-eighth in the Middle Western States and California, and about 5 percent in the Southern States.

TABLE 12.—*Cumulative Percentage Distribution of Employees in Dimension-Granite Industry by Weekly Earnings and by Region, August 1937*

Weekly earnings	Quarrying [a]					Finishing					
	Northern New England [1]	Southern New England,[2] including New York	Pennsylvania and Maryland	Southern States[3]	Middle Western States[4]	Northern New England [1]	Southern New England,[2] including New York	Pennsylvania and Maryland	Southern States[3]	Middle Western States[4]	California
Under $5	0.2	0.5	1.7	5.8	0.4	0.3	0.7	0.6	2.6	0.1	.....
$5 and under $10	.7	2.2	5.6	36.9	3.6	1.6	1.9	2.5	15.8	1.2	.....
$10 and under $15	2.5	5.6	22.3	74.4	8.0	4.9	4.9	6.7	35.3	6.0	8.9
$15 and under $20	11.5	16.6	57.5	88.2	29.9	12.3	12.0	23.3	52.6	20.7	22.2
$20 and under $25	47.6	53.5	85.5	93.4	53.6	26.8	28.1	39.9	63.0	41.5	35.6
$25 and under $30	81.1	82.9	96.1	95.3	71.4	36.7	39.1	54.6	73.5	60.9	55.6
$30 and under $35	90.1	91.2	97.2	97.0	87.1	50.1	52.6	68.1	89.8	75.7	82.2
$35 and under $40	93.7	96.3	98.9	98.1	93.3	60.9	66.1	79.1	94.7	86.9	86.7
$40 and under $45	96.1	99.3	99.4	99.2	96.9	94.2	88.7	93.3	97.8	94.2	97.8
$45 and under $50	96.6	99.5	99.4	99.4	98.7	97.7	91.0	96.3	99.5	96.7	97.8
$50 and under $55	99.8	100.0	100.0	99.7	99.1	99.2	99.1	98.2	99.8	98.4	97.8
$55 and under $60						99.6	99.9	100.0	99.8	99.0	97.8
$60 and under $65	100.0	-----	-----	100.0	100.0	99.8	100.0	-----	99.8	99.7	97.8
$65 and over						100.0	-----	-----	100.0	100.0	100.0

[a] California was excluded, due to small coverage.
[1] Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont.
[2] Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut.
[3] North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia.
[4] Wisconsin, Minnesota, and South Dakota.

ENTRANCE RATES OF COMMON LABORERS IN 20 INDUSTRIES, JULY 1937

By JACOB PERLMAN and EDWARD K. FRAZIER, *Bureau of Labor Statistics*

ACCORDING to the twelfth annual survey recently completed by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, the average hourly entrance rate of common laborers in the country as a whole was 51.2 cents in July 1937. This figure is based upon data covering 222,555 common laborers working at the entrance rate, who were employed by establishments in 20 important industries.

Scope and Method of Survey

The questionnaire used in this survey defined a common laborer as one who "performs physical or manual labor of a general character and simple nature, requiring no special training, judgment, or skill." It specifically excluded such workers as machine operators who have to be trained for the job.

While it is not certain that this definition conveys the same meaning to all persons filling out the questionnaire, it is safe to assume that the definition was generally accepted as including only the unskilled workers. This group excludes learners and apprentices, often classified as semiskilled employees, who are required to undergo varying periods of training leading up to specific jobs. However, unskilled common laborers may be classified or general, the former being assigned to perform definite kinds of common labor and the latter engaging in common labor of miscellaneous nature. Both of these groups are included in this survey, and their distinguishing characteristic is the performance of such simple labor as requires only a verbal order from a foreman or supervisor. Each questionnaire obtained in this survey was carefully edited to insure that the plant's report conformed to the above definition of common labor.

The questionnaire defined the "entrance rate" as the lowest rate paid to common laborers when newly hired, stipulating that no workers be included who received more than this entrance rate. In many establishments all common laborers are paid a single rate, which is also the entrance rate. In some plants, however, there were several rates in existence, an entrance rate and one or more other rates, varying in accordance with such factors as efficiency and seniority. Other plants have several entrance rates based on the race or color of the worker and the kind of work performed (such as dangerous, extraordinarily heavy, unpleasant, etc.).

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The present survey, like its predecessors, was limited to adult male common laborers. Because of the heavy work involved, very few females are employed as common laborers, except to do such work as cleaning, dusting, etc.

The data obtained were as of July 1, 1937. This date is not ideal, as some industries are not hiring common laborers to any great extent at that time of the year. On the other hand, owing to the fact that the busy season varies from one industry to another, it would be difficult to select a date that would satify all of the 20 industries from the standpoint of newly hired laborers. Moreover, each of the Bureau's previous surveys, since 1926, has covered July 1.

Because a fairly large proportion of the common laborers are other than white, the questionnaire called for a separation of the data by color, using the classes of white, Negro, and Mexican or other laborers. Of the total number of employees, there were 176,328 (79.2 percent) whites, 40,976 (18.4 percent) Negroes, and 5,251 (2.4 percent) Mexican or other laborers.

The 20 industries covered in this survey were the same as those studied in 1936, including 16 manufacturing industries, 3 public utilities, and building construction.

Since the survey was made by means of a mail questionnaire, the sample depended solely upon the number of returns received. However, every attempt was made to obtain a wide coverage, and it is believed that the 1937 data in each of the industries are satisfactorily distributed as to geographical location, size of city, etc. The distribution of the number of establishments reporting and the number of common laborers at entrance rates are contained in the various tables of this article.

In addition to the entrance rate, data were also obtained as to the number of common laborers at each entrance rate. The latter figures were used as weights in computing averages and in compiling the wage distributions.

Variations in Entrance Rates

Just as there are differences in the hiring or entrance rates for skilled employees doing the same kind of work, there are also different entrance rates for common laborers. These variations may be attributed to geographical location, size of city, color of worker, industry, etc.

In July 1937, the entrance rates of adult male common laborers in the 20 industries covered ranged from a low of under 12.5 cents to a high of $1.10 and over per hour. However, the great majority of the laborers (81.6 percent of the total) were paid 37.5 and under 67.5 cents per hour (table 1). There were 12.4 percent receiving under 37.5 cents, and 6.0 percent earned 67.5 cents and over.[1]

[1] The number of laborers earning under 40 cents per hour amounted to 14.7 percent, which may be compared with 4.9 percent earning 70 cents and over.

TABLE 1.—*Distribution of Adult Male Common Laborers by Hourly Entrance Rates in 20 Industries, July 1937*

Hourly entrance rate	Number of common laborers at entrance rate	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage
Total	222,555	100.0	
Under 12.5 cents	116	0.1	0.1
12.5 and under 17.5 cents	865	.4	.5
17.5 and under 22.5 cents	3,128	1.4	1.9
22.5 and under 27.5 cents	8,481	3.8	5.7
27.5 and under 32.5 cents	8,149	3.7	9.4
32.5 and under 37.5 cents	6,728	3.0	12.4
37.5 and under 42.5 cents	26,378	11.9	24.3
42.5 and under 47.5 cents	25,444	11.4	35.7
47.5 and under 52.5 cents	35,303	15.8	51.5
52.5 and under 57.5 cents	26,987	12.1	63.6
57.5 and under 62.5 cents	25,932	11.7	75.3
62.5 and under 67.5 cents	41,920	18.7	94.0
67.5 and under 72.5 cents	5,033	2.3	96.3
72.5 and under 77.5 cents	3,693	1.7	98.0
77.5 and under 82.5 cents	836	.4	98.4
82.5 and under 90.0 cents	1,261	.6	99.0
90.0 and under 100.0 cents	1,546	.7	99.7
100.0 and under 110.0 cents	752	.3	100.0
110.0 cents and over	3	[1]	100.0

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

It will also be noted that this distribution has several concentrations, which is due to the influence of various factors mentioned above that affect the entrance rates.

Geographical Differences in Entrance Rates

The variation in average hourly entrance rates on a geographical basis may be seen from table 2, which shows the data by region, geographic division, and State, as well as by race or color of employees, for all industries combined.

TABLE 2.—*Average Hourly Entrance Rates of Adult Male Common Laborers in 20 Industries, by State and Color, July 1937*

Region, geographic division, and State	Number of establishments reporting	Number of common laborers at entrance rate				Average hourly entrance rate			
		Total	White	Negro	Mexican or other	Total	White	Negro	Mexican or other
United States	5,238	222,555	176,328	40,976	5,251	$0.512	$0.534	$0.420	$0.493
North	3,961	167,273	149,061	13,995	4,217	.553	.552	.566	.531
New England	475	9,711	9,493	213	5	.495	.494	.531	(1)
Maine	56	2,048	2,047	1	------	.457	.457	(1)	------
New Hampshire	40	463	463	------	------	.409	.409	------	------
Vermont	17	274	274	------	------	.440	.440	------	------
Massachusetts	220	4,337	4,284	51	2	.513	.514	.493	(1)
Rhode Island	43	504	502	2	------	.491	.491	(1)	------
Connecticut	99	2,085	1,923	159	3	.522	.520	.544	(1)
Middle Atlantic	903	45,896	40,791	4,871	234	.550	.547	.566	.584
New York	327	12,334	11,648	597	89	.520	.518	.550	.590
New Jersey	155	7,078	6,373	702	3	.561	.564	.538	(1)
Pennsylvania	421	26,484	22,770	3,572	142	.561	.558	.584	.578
East North Central	1,393	63,762	55,583	6,727	1,452	.560	.557	.570	.609
Ohio	505	17,445	14,276	3,144	25	.557	.555	.563	(1)
Indiana	206	13,830	11,442	1,236	1,152	.565	.560	.552	.624
Illinois	258	15,704	14,264	1,276	164	.594	.595	.591	.568
Michigan	275	10,967	9,924	990	53	.542	.536	.596	.538
Wisconsin	149	5,816	5,677	81	58	.510	.508	.610	.527
West North Central	461	16,036	14,160	1,686	190	.527	.523	.558	.567
Minnesota	88	4,528	4,497	21	10	.548	.547	(1)	(1)
Iowa	88	3,052	2,841	177	34	.504	.500	.564	(1)
Missouri	135	4,222	3,168	1,022	32	.559	.559	.559	(1)
North Dakota	10	160	160	------	------	.438	.438	------	------
South Dakota	13	174	173	------	1	.424	.423	------	(1)
Nebraska	42	1,464	1,300	151	13	.481	.475	.522	(1)
Kansas	85	2,436	2,021	315	100	.501	.487	.567	.571
Mountain	156	5,355	4,727	90	538	.548	.572	.329	.376
Montana	19	1,009	1,009	------	------	.538	.538	------	------
Idaho	14	922	922	------	------	.578	.578	------	------
Wyoming	8	95	95	------	------	.550	.550	------	------
Colorado	46	1,592	1,413	18	161	.542	.546	(1)	.507
New Mexico	13	406	219	1	186	.285	.275	(1)	.297
Arizona	21	499	243	70	186	.370	.422	.266	.340
Utah	30	700	694	1	5	.492	.492	(1)	(1)
Nevada	5	132	132	------	------	.514	.514	------	------
Pacific	573	26,513	24,307	408	1,798	.586	.593	.527	.503
Washington	176	8,731	8,653	5	73	.618	.618	(1)	.598
Oregon	106	5,533	5,468	------	65	.597	.598	------	.490
California	291	12,249	10,186	403	1,660	.558	.568	.526	.499
South	1,277	55,282	27,267	26,981	1,034	.389	.434	.345	.339
South Atlantic	633	23,823	11,832	11,973	18	.408	.466	.350	(1)
Delaware	41	738	464	274	------	.440	.452	.418	------
Maryland	75	3,530	1,338	2,192	------	.480	.453	.496	------
District of Columbia	77	1,772	463	1,308	1	.500	.515	.494	(1)
Virginia	94	3,163	1,431	1,718	14	.360	.376	.346	(1)
West Virginia	81	6,312	6,140	171	1	.532	.530	.598	(1)
North Carolina	66	1,999	622	1,377	------	.281	.331	.258	------
South Carolina	42	1,114	109	1,005	------	.235	.298	.228	------
Georgia	79	1,992	325	1,667	------	.267	.305	.260	------
Florida	78	3,203	940	2,261	2	.300	.352	.278	(1)
East South Central	233	10,998	4,371	6,626	1	.373	.398	.356	(1)
Kentucky	64	1,694	1,108	586	------	.432	.434	.429	------
Tennessee	80	2,717	1,236	1,480	1	.329	.361	.301	(1)
Alabama	72	4,699	1,442	3,257	------	.397	.415	.389	------
Mississippi	17	1,888	585	1,303	------	.322	.365	.302	------
West South Central	411	20,461	11,064	8,382	1,015	.375	.414	.329	.337
Arkansas	43	4,084	1,981	2,103	------	.288	.299	.278	------
Louisiana	77	5,586	2,369	3,212	5	.332	.369	.305	(1)
Oklahoma	72	2,643	2,263	362	18	.419	.425	.375	(1)
Texas	219	8,148	4,451	2,705	992	.434	.482	.390	.334

[1] Fewer than 50 employees; no average computed.

It has been customary in recent years to divide the country into two principal wage areas, namely North and South. As regards entrance rates, the 1937 averages were 55.3 cents in the northern and 38.9 cents in the southern territories.

Among the geographic divisions in the northern region, the lowest average, 49.5 cents, was found in the New England States. The next lowest average, 52.7 cents, was in the West North Central States, many of which are predominantly agricultural. The Mountain States averaged 54.8 cents. The highly industrialized and populous Middle Atlantic and East North Central States averaged respectively 55.0 and 56.0 cents, but the highest average, 58.6 cents, was in the Pacific States.

That each geographic division does not constitute an altogether homogeneous wage area is evident from an examination of the averages, State by State. Thus, northern New England, comprising Maine (45.7 cents), New Hampshire (40.9 cents), and Vermont (44.0 cents), showed a lower wage level than southern New England, where the averages were 49.1 cents for Rhode Island, 51.3 cents for Massachusetts, and 52.2 cents for Connecticut. New York averaged 52.0 cents, thus placing it this year more or less on a par with Massachusetts and Connecticut. The remaining Middle Atlantic States, Pennsylvania and New Jersey, all of the East North Central States except Wisconsin and Illinois, and Minnesota and Missouri of the West North Central States seem to constitute another wage area, in which the hourly earnings averaged from about 54 to 56 cents. The Wisconsin average was 51.0 cents, while that of Illinois was 59.4 cents. The remaining West North Central States may be divided into two wage areas, one embracing Iowa, Kansas, and Nebraska with averages from about 48 to 50 cents, and the other including the Dakotas with an average of about 43 cents. In the Mountain States, the averages for Arizona (37.0 cents) and New Mexico (28.5 cents) were considerably lower than those for the other States (with averages ranging from 49.2 to 57.8 cents). Among the Pacific States, Washington (61.8 cents) and Oregon (59.7 cents) had a higher wage level than California (55.8 cents).

In the southern region, the averages by geographic division were 37.3 cents for the East South Central States, 37.5 cents for the West South Central States, and 40.8 cents for the South Atlantic States.

An examination of the State averages in the southern region, however, shows an even wider variation than in the North. This is especially true of the South Atlantic States, where the averages ranged from 23.5 cents in South Carolina to 53.2 cents in West Virginia. In the East South Central States, the averages varied from 32.2 cents in Mississippi to 43.2 cents in Kentucky, while in the West South Central States the range was from 28.8 cents in Arkansas

to 43.4 cents in Texas. In fact, it appears that, with South Carolina forming a low wage center, the averages increase with the distance from this center. The highest averages, therefore, are found in the States along the periphery of this territory, namely Delaware (44.0 cents), Maryland (48.0 cents), District of Columbia (50.0 cents), West Virginia (53.2 cents), Kentucky (43.2 cents), Oklahoma (41.9 cents), and Texas (43.4 cents).

On the basis of State averages, it will also be seen that the common-labor wage level in West Virginia (53.2 cents) resembles that in the North rather than in the South. On the other hand, the averages in a number of Northern States (such as New Hampshire, Vermont, North Dakota, South Dakota, Arizona, and New Mexico) fall within the range of averages in the southern area.

Even with this overlapping in State averages, there is a striking contrast between the northern and southern wage distributions. This may be seen by an examination of table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Percentage Distribution of Adult Male Common Laborers According to Hourly Entrance Rates in 20 Industries, by Region, July 1937*

Hourly entrance rate	North				South			
	All	White	Negro	Mexican and other	All	White	Negro	Mexican and other
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Under 12.5 cents	(1)	(1)	-------	-------	.2	(1)	.4	-------
12.5 and under 17.5 cents	-------	-------	-------	-------	1.6	.6	2.6	-------
17.5 and under 22.5 cents	(1)	(1)	-------	-------	5.6	2.1	9.1	7.9
22.5 and under 27.5 cents	.3	.2	.5	4.1	14.3	7.6	20.7	23.7
27.5 and under 32.5 cents	.6	.4	.3	6.1	13.0	9.5	16.4	16.9
32.5 and under 37.5 cents	1.1	1.1	.6	2.7	8.9	9.3	8.2	15.7
37.5 and under 42.5 cents	8.9	9.2	6.6	5.0	20.8	22.2	19.5	18.0
42.5 and under 47.5 cents	11.0	11.2	10.7	5.3	12.7	14.7	11.1	5.4
47.5 and under 52.5 cents	18.9	18.7	22.2	16.7	6.7	9.8	3.8	4.9
52.5 and under 57.5 cents	18.9	14.4	10.2	7.6	6.9	8.2	5.6	7.3
57.5 and under 62.5 cents	14.7	14.8	14.2	14.5	2.4	3.4	1.4	.1
62.5 and under 67.5 cents	23.3	23.2	20.4	36.1	5.5	9.8	1.2	.1
67.5 and under 72.5 cents	2.7	2.5	5.4	1.3	.8	1.6	-------	-------
72.5 and under 77.5 cents	2.0	1.7	5.8	.2	.6	1.2	(1)	-------
77.5 and under 82.5 cents	.5	.5	.9	.2	-------	-------	-------	-------
82.5 and under 90.0 cents	.8	.8	.9	(1)	-------	-------	-------	-------
90.0 and under 100.0 cents	.9	.9	1.0	.2	-------	-------	-------	-------
100.0 and under 110.0 cents	.4	.4	.3	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------
110.0 cents and over	(1)	(1)	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

In the North, the concentration for all common laborers occurred in the classes of 42.5 and under 67.5 cents, with 81.8 percent falling within that spread. Only 2.0 percent were paid less than 37.5 cents and 10.9 percent under 42.5 cents, while 7.3 percent received 67.5 cents and over. In the South, on the other hand, the concentration was in the classes of 22.5 and under 47.5 cents, with 69.7 percent of the common laborers falling within these limits. There were 7.4 percent paid less than 22.5 cents, as compared with 22.9 percent receiving 47.5 cents and above.

Comparing the two regions it is seen that, while only 2.0 percent of all common laborers received less than 37.5 cents in the northern region, as many as 43.6 percent were paid under that limit in the southern region. Similarly, the number of common laboreres under 42.5 cents was only 10.9 percent in the North, as against 64.4 percent in the South. At the other end of the scale, with 7.3 percent of the common laborers in the northern region paid 67.5 cents and over, there were only 1.4 percent found in the same classification in the southern region.[2]

Wage Differences in Entrance Rates, by Color

The higher entrance rates in the North as compared with the South may in part be explained by the existing color differentials in the southern region.

Negro common laborers were by no means found only in the southern region. In fact, of a total of 40,976 colored workers included in this survey, 13,995, or roughly one-third, were reported from northern plants. These 13,995 constituted about 8 percent of the 167,273 employees in the northern coverage. Among the States in this region reporting large numbers of colored laborers were Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, Missouri, Michigan, New Jersey, and New York.

According to table 4, it appears that in the northern region, on the whole, the entrance rates of colored laborers were not less than those paid to white workers. Thus, the rates in plants employing Negroes only averaged about the same as in those employing whites only. In fact, establishments employing both white and Negro laborers had higher average hourly entrance rates than the ones employing either one or the other group exclusively. This was probably due to the fact that the former plants belong in part to industries with higher wage levels than the latter establishments.

TABLE 4.—*Average Hourly Entrance Rates of Adult Male Common Laborers in 20 Industries, by Color and Region, July 1937*

Color or race	Number of common laborers at entrance rate			Average hourly entrance rate		
	All	North	South	All	North	South
All races	222, 555	167, 273	55, 282	$0. 512	$0. 553	$0. 389
Plants reporting—						
Whites only	93, 154	82, 720	10, 434	. 520	. 530	. 444
Negroes only	6, 003	396	5, 607	. 312	. 532	. 296
Mexican or other only	133	43	90	. 325	(1)	. 293
Whites and Negroes	86, 196	53, 916	32, 280	. 499	. 578	. 368
Whites and Mexicans	8, 232	7, 416	816	. 528	. 540	. 417
Negroes and Mexicans	474	8	466	. 298	(1)	. 295
Whites, Negroes, and Mexicans	28, 363	22, 774	5, 589	. 566	. 581	. 506

[1] Fewer than 50 employees; no average computed.

[2] The number of common laborers paid less than 40 cents per hour was 3.5 percent in the North and 43.4 percent in the South, while the number receiving 70 cents and over amounted to 6.3 percent in the North and 0.7 percent in the South.

The same conclusion may be reached from an examination of the State averages in table 2. Thus, while in some States the average for whites was greater than that for colored laborers, quite the reverse was true in other States. For the northern region as a whole, the average hourly entrance rate was 55.2 cents for whites and 56.6 cents for Negroes. Likewise, as shown in table 3, there were no radical differences between the distributions covering white and Negro employees in that region.

Of the 40,976 Negro common laborers included in this survey, 26,981, or nearly two-thirds, were reported from southern establishments. These 26,981 colored workers constituted nearly one-half of the 55,282 employees covered in the southern region. With the exception of West Virginia and Oklahoma, every one of the Southern States had a large proportion of Negro laborers, and in a great majority of them the number of colored laborers exceeded that of the whites.

The differential in the South between the average entrance rates for white common laborers (43.4 cents) and for Negroes (34.5 cents) is in part a reflective of geographical differences. So also is the differential shown in table 4 between plants that employed only white common laborers at an average of 44.4 cents and those employing only Negroes at an average of 29.6 cents. The South, as has been noted, is not a homogeneous wage area. Wages in the border States are higher than those in the deep South, while the proportion of Negroes in the common labor force in the border States is lower. However, it is significant that in each of the southern States, with the exception of Maryland and West Virginia, the white common laborers averaged more than the Negroes.

It should be noted that where both white and Negro common labor is hired, the entrance rate is the same in most northern establishments, whereas it differs in many southern establishments and generally favors the white worker. Of the 882 plants in the northern region in which both white and Negro common laborers were employed, the hourly entrance rates were the same for both races in 782 plants. In 60 plants the higher rates favored the whites, and in 40 plants they favored the Negroes. In the southern region 534 plants reported both white and Negro common laborers. Of this total, 370 reported the same rates for both races, 151 had higher rates for whites, and 13 higher rates for Negroes.

While the differential between white and Negro common laborers in the South appears to account for part of the difference between northern and southern rates, it is by no means the sole explanation. Thus, even if the Negroes are omitted in each case, the average for the whites is still considerably greater in the northern region than in the southern region, the actual figures being respectively 55.2 and 43.4 cents. This difference also appears in the northern and southern distributions for white workers. According to table 3, only 1.7 percent of the northern laborers received less than 37.5 cents, which may

be compared with 29.1 percent in the southern region. Furthermore, while 10.9 percent of the laborers in the North were paid under 42.5 cents, as many as 51.3 percent received under that figure in the southern region. On the other hand, there were 6.8 percent of the laborers in the northern region who were paid 67.5 cents and over, as against only 2.8 percent in the South.

Entrance Rates by Size of City

The extent to which urbanization affects the average hourly entrance rates may be seen from table 5, which presents the data according to size of city for the United States as a whole and for the northern and southern regions.

TABLE 5.—*Average Hourly Entrance Rates of Adult Male Common Laborers in 20 Industries, by Size of City, July 1937*

Size of city	Number of common laborers at entrance rate	Average hourly entrance rate
United States	222,555	$0.512
500,000 and over	40,190	.593
100,000 and under 500,000	44,124	.502
50,000 and under 100,000	17,698	.476
25,000 and under 50,000	15,993	.502
10,000 and under 25,000	30,073	.522
Less than 10,000	67,609	.484
City not reported	6,868	.452
North	167,273	.553
500,000 and over	38,603	.599
100,000 and under 500,000	28,016	.564
50,000 and under 100,000	10,721	.537
25,000 and under 50,000	12,641	.532
10,000 and under 25,000	25,983	.549
Less than 10,000	46,568	.527
City not reported	4,741	.491
South	55,282	.389
500,000 and over	1,587	.450
100,000 and under 500,000	16,108	.395
50,000 and under 100,000	6,977	.384
25,000 and under 50,000	3,352	.390
10,000 and under 25,000	4,090	.354
Less than 10,000	21,041	.390
City not reported	2,127	.366

In the North, the highest average entrance rate, 59.9 cents, was in cities with a population of 500,000 and over. The next highest average, 56.4 cents, appeared in cities with a population of 100,000 and under 500,000. Among the various classes of smaller cities, namely those with a population of less than 100,000, there were no clearly defined differences in average entrance rates, although the average in each case was smaller than the one for cities with 100,000 and under 500,000.

Baltimore is the only city with a population of 500,000 and over in the South. Its average hourly entrance rate was 45.0 cents, being considerably higher than those reported for each of the classes of smaller cities in this region. This difference, however, was due more to the influence of industry and location than to the size of the city.

With one exception, the average entrance rates of the smaller classes of cities amounted to about 39 cents per hour, there being no clearly defined differences according to size in connection with these classes.

Entrance Rates, by Industry

As previously stated, one of the reasons for the wide variation in entrance rates is the diversity of industries covered. The average hourly entrance rates on an industry basis appear in table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Average Hourly Entrance Rates of Adult Male Common Laborers, by Region and Industry, July 1936 and 1937*

Industry	Average hourly earnings of all wage earners [1]			Common laborers			
				Establishments reporting		Laborers at entrance rate	
	1936	1937	Percent of change	1936	1937	1936	1937
All 20 industries	(2)	(2)		4,912	5,238	218,135	222,555
Manufacturing	(2)	(2)		3,387	3,252	173,430	172,297
Automobile parts	(2)	(2)		112	67	3,111	3,188
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	$0.451	$0.528	+17.1	249	249	8,025	7,987
Cement	.580	.665	+14.7	91	102	3,915	4,200
Chemicals	.664	.763	+14.9	125	133	3,950	5,951
Fertilizers	.386	.453	+17.4	222	207	3,455	4,287
Foundry and machine-shop products	.596	.692	+16.1	681	661	21,283	21,937
Glass	.607	.682	+12.4	101	103	8,081	7,747
Iron and steel	.669	.858	+28.3	219	229	28,796	36,579
Leather	.561	.631	+12.5	149	126	4,934	4,234
Lumber (sawmills)	.465	.542	+16.6	305	286	27,713	26,067
Paints and varnishes	.599	.682	+13.9	188	174	3,209	3,080
Paper and pulp	.538	.622	+15.6	530	505	31,691	27,031
Petroleum refining	.830	.966	+16.4	156	159	7,166	8,203
Rubber tires and inner tubes	.875	.969	+10.7	28	29	1,362	773
Slaughtering and meat packing	.559	.692	+23.8	188	183	15,510	10,503
Soap	.615	.714	+16.1	43	39	1,229	530
Public utilities	(2)	(2)		875	820	24,968	22,300
Electric light and power	(4)	(4)		463	435	11,522	10,127
Electric street railways and city motor-bus operation and maintenance	.639	.682	+6.7	297	257	9,874	7,739
Manufactured and natural gas	(4)	(4)		115	128	3,572	4,434
Building construction	.817	.925	+13.2	650	1,166	19,737	27,958

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—*Average Hourly Entrance Rates of Adult Male Common Laborers, by Region and Industry, July 1936 and 1937*—Continued

Industry	Average hourly entrance rates of common laborers								
	Total			North			South		
	1936	1937	Percent of change	1936	1937	Percent of change	1936	1937	Percent of change
All 20 industries	$0.432	$0.512	+18.5	$0.461	$0.553	+20.0	$0.334	$0.389	+16.5
Manufacturing	.424	.511	+20.5	.451	.548	+21.5	.326	.392	+20.2
Automobile parts	.466	.554	+18.9	.467	.554	+18.6	(2)		
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	.379	.457	+20.6	.405	.484	+19.5	.277	.319	+15.2
Cement	.440	.514	+16.8	.476	.553	+16.2	.347	.414	+19.3
Chemicals	.441	.524	+18.8	.493	.590	+19.7	.339	.439	+29.5
Fertilizers	.296	.364	+23.0	.389	.539	+38.6	.256	.279	+9.0
Foundry and machine-shop products	.425	.496	+16.7	.432	.507	+17.4	.363	.381	+5.0
Glass	.438	.504	+15.1	.440	.509	+15.7	.429	.485	+13.1
Iron and steel	.451	.585	+29.7	.457	.595	+30.2	.395	.534	+35.2
Leather	.422	.477	+13.0	.444	.504	+13.5	.360	.387	+7.5
Lumber (sawmills)	.380	.437	+15.0	.463	.546	+17.9	.224	.245	+9.4
Paints and varnishes	.435	.552	+26.9	.443	.560	+26.4	.368	.412	+12.0
Paper and pulp	.413	.477	+15.5	.434	.511	+17.7	.340	.396	+16.5
Petroleum refining	.525	.611	+16.4	.563	.642	+14.0	.485	.563	+16.1
Rubber tires and inner tubes	.447	.481	+7.6	.449	.482	+7.3	(2)	(2)	
Slaughtering and meat packing	.456	.567	+24.3	.468	.582	+24.4	.356	.474	+33.1
Soap	.422	.489	+15.9	.422	.490	+16.1	(2)	(2)	
Public utilities	.429	.467	+8.9	.466	.497	+6.7	.337	.375	+11.3
Electric light and power	.431	.459	+6.5	.472	.497	+5.3	.326	.381	+16.9
Electric street railways and city motor-bus operation and maintenance	.423	.475	+12.3	.457	.500	+9.4	.326	.325	−.3
Manufactured and natural gas	.437	.473	+8.2	.476	.494	+3.8	.379	.406	+7.1
Building construction	.509	.553	+8.6	.552	.636	+15.2	.387	.382	−1.3

[1] United States totals, based on monthly reports on employment and pay rolls collected by the Bureau.
[2] Not available.
[3] Fewer than 50 employees; no average computed.
[4] The averages for electric light and power and manufactured and natural gas combined were 78.5 cents in 1936 and 84.7 cents in 1937.

Among the 16 manufacturing industries, the highest average entrance rate per hour was 61.1 cents in petroleum refining, while the lowest was 36.4 cents in fertilizers. Of the remaining industries, iron and steel, slaughtering and meat packing, automobile parts, and paints and varnishes averaged 55 and under 60 cents; chemicals, cement, and glass averaged 50 and under 55 cents; foundry and machine-shop products, soap, rubber tires and inner tubes, paper and pulp, leather, and brick, tile, and terra cotta averaged 45 and under 50 cents; and lumber (sawmills) averaged 43.7 cents. The average for all manufacturing industries combined amounted to 51.1 cents.

In the public-utility field, the average hourly entrance rates for each of the three industries were practically the same, the group average amounting to 46.7 cents.

Building construction averaged 55.3 cents in hourly entrance rates, and the only manufacturing industries that exceeded this figure were automobile parts, slaughtering and meat packing, petroleum refining, and iron and steel.

The petroleum industry ranked first in average hourly entrance rates in both the northern and southern regions. On the other hand, the relative positions of the remaining industry averages varied considerably between the North and South. For example, building construction with an average of 63.6 cents ranked second in the northern region, while in the southern region its average amounted to 38.2 cents, thus making it eleventh in rank among the 17 industries for which figures were available. Next to rubber tires and inner tubes (for which figures were available only in the North), the brick, tile, and terra cotta industry had the lowest average in the northern region, while in the South the brick industry ranked third from the bottom. Likewise, lumber had the lowest average in the southern region, 24.5 cents, but in the northern region it ranked ninth from the top of the 20 industries covered.

Table 6 also presents the average hourly earnings of all wage earners in each of the industries covered (except automobile parts). These averages may be compared with the corresponding average hourly entrance rates of common laborers. The difference between the average hourly entrance rates of common laborers and the average hourly earnings of all wage earners varies considerably from one industry to another, often depending on the proportion of common laborers found in each industry.

Comparisons Between 1936 and 1937 [3]

For the 20 industries combined, the average hourly entrance rate in 1936 amounted to 43.2 cents. (See table 6.) As the 1937 figure was 51.2 cents, there was an increase of 8 cents or 18.5 percent. Both the absolute and relative gains were greater in the North than in the South.

For the country as a whole, the rise in the average of the 16 manufacturing industries combined was from 42.4 cents in 1936 to 51.1 cents in 1937, which is an advance of 8.7 cents, or 20.5 percent. Both the absolute and relative increases here were also higher in the northern as against the southern region.

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[3] It should be kept in mind that the 1936 and 1937 group averages are not strictly comparable, due to a shift in the industry weights (in terms of the number of common laborers reported at the entrance rates) between the 2 years. (See also the footnote on p. 1508.)

Thus, in building construction, the coverage in 1937 was 1,166 firms with 27,958 employees, as against 650 firms with 19,737 employees in 1936. Important shifts in coverage between the 2 years (either increases or decreases) also occurred in iron and steel, slaughtering and meat packing, paper and pulp, electric street railways and city motorbus operation and maintenance, chemicals, electric light and power, and petroleum refining. (See table 6.)

The extent to which the shifts in the weights affect the comparison between 1936 and 1937 in the group averages may be determined by reweighting the 1936 industry averages on the basis of the respective numbers of common laborers reported for each industry in 1937. As a result, the 1936 averages are found to be 43.6 cents for all 20 industries combined, 42.6 cents for the 16 manufacturing industries combined, and 42.9 cents for the 3 public-utility industries combined, which may be compared respectively with the averages of 43.2, 42.4, and 42.9 cents on the basis of 1936 weights.

Every one of the 16 manufacturing industries showed an increase in the average between 1936 and 1937 for the country as a whole as well as for each region. In the country as a whole, the relative gain was largest in iron and steel (29.7 percent) and smallest (7.6 percent) in rubber tires and inner tubes. In the North, the increases ranged from 38.6 percent in fertilizers to 7.3 percent in rubber tires and inner tubes, while in the South they ranged from 35.2 percent in iron and steel to 5.0 percent in foundry and machine-shop products.

The average hourly entrance rate in the public-utilities group of industries rose from 42.9 cents in 1936 to 46.7 cents in 1937, which represents an advance of 3.8 cents or 8.9 percent. In this group, however, both the absolute and relative increases were somewhat greater in the South than in the North. With one exception, each of the three industries included here showed gains in average hourly entrance rates between 1936 and 1937 for the country as a whole as well as for each region.

In building construction the increase in average hourly entrance rates between 1936 and 1937 amounted to 4.4 cents or 8.6 percent, the respective averages being 50.9 and 55.3 cents. The gain was all confined to the northern region, where the average increased from 55.2 cents in 1936 to 63.6 cents in 1937, a rise of 8.4 cents or 15.2 percent. In the southern region, however, the average declined slightly between 1936 and 1937, which may be due in part to the fact that the 1937 coverage greatly exceeds that in 1936.

It is also interesting to note that of the 17 individual industries covered for which data are available, there were 11 in which the relative gain between 1936 and 1937 in average hourly entrance rates of common laborers exceeded that in the average hourly earnings of all wage earners.

The extent to which the increase in averages for the various industries between 1936 and 1937 is reflected in the respective cumulative percentage distributions may be seen in table 7.

TABLE 7.—*Cumulative Percentage Distribution of Adult Male Common Laborers, by Hourly Entrance Rates, Industry, and Region, July 1936 and 1937*

Hourly entrance rate (in cents)	Automobile parts						Brick, tile, and terra cotta					
	United States		North		South		United States		North		South	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936 *	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
Under 12.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	0.1	------	------	------	0.4	------
12.5 and under 17.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	2.2	0.4	------	------	10.6	2.5
17.5 and under 22.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	4.5	3.6	------	------	21.8	22.3
22.5 and under 27.5	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.3	------	------	11.6	7.4	0.7	0.6	53.7	43.0
27.5 and under 32.5	1.8	1.1	1.6	1.1	------	------	17.5	11.0	1.6	1.0	78.8	63.0
32.5 and under 37.5	7.0	3.0	6.8	3.0	------	------	30.3	15.0	17.1	3.6	81.5	74.3
37.5 and under 42.5	41.5	8.5	41.3	8.5	------	------	80.0	34.0	75.9	25.5	96.0	77.5
42.5 and under 47.5	66.6	20.5	66.4	20.5	------	------	96.5	48.9	96.2	42.9	97.8	79.4
47.5 and under 52.5	75.5	36.4	75.3	36.4	------	------	99.0	70.7	98.7	65.8	100.0	95.3
52.5 and under 57.5	87.9	70.5	87.8	70.5	------	------	99.0	80.7	98.7	77.3	------	97.6
57.5 and under 62.5	87.9	73.7	87.8	73.7	------	------	99.3	98.6	99.1	98.2	------	100.0
62.5 and under 67.5	98.5	88.8	98.5	88.8	------	------	99.3	98.6	99.1	98.2	------	------
67.5 and under 72.5	100.0	89.7	100.0	89.7	------	------	99.3	99.7	99.1	99.6	------	------
72.5 and under 77.5	------	100.0	------	100.0	------	------	99.3	99.7	99.1	99.6	------	------
77.5 and under 82.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	------	------

Hourly entrance rate (in cents)	Cement						Chemicals					
Under 12.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
12.5 and under 17.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
17.5 and under 22.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	0.4	------	------	------	1.1	------
22.5 and under 27.5	2.0	------	------	------	7.3	------	7.4	4.7	------	------	21.7	10.8
27.5 and under 32.5	11.4	3.2	------	------	40.6	11.6	18.1	9.7	------	------	53.3	22.2
32.5 and under 37.5	20.8	10.8	------	------	73.9	39.0	25.6	12.1	(1)	0.1	75.5	27.5
37.5 and under 42.5	36.6	17.3	18.4	2.5	83.0	56.0	33.9	25.0	11.5	.9	77.6	55.7
42.5 and under 47.5	57.4	32.5	44.8	11.3	89.6	87.6	51.2	37.1	36.5	15.4	79.8	64.9
47.5 and under 52.5	87.9	44.6	83.1	28.0	100.0	87.6	76.9	43.0	66.1	21.0	98.0	71.1
52.5 and under 57.5	91.5	83.2	88.1	76.8	------	100.0	94.4	52.3	91.6	37.2	100.0	71.6
57.5 and under 62.5	99.6	89.0	99.4	84.8	------	------	100.0	63.3	100.0	56.9	------	71.6
62.5 and under 67.5	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	------	------	------	90.7	------	83.4	------	100.0
67.5 and under 72.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	100.0	------	100.0	------	------

Hourly entrance rate (in cents)	Fertilizers						Foundry and machine-shop products					
Under 12.5	1.5	(1)	------	------	2.1	(1)	------	------	------	------	------	------
12.5 and under 17.5	4.9	3.6	------	------	7.0	5.4	(1)	(1)	(1)	------	------	0.3
17.5 and under 22.5	11.0	7.8	------	------	15.7	11.6	0.1	0.1	0.1	------	0.1	1.5
22.5 and under 27.5	54.8	42.0	0.3	------	78.4	62.5	.5	0.6	.1	(1)	4.4	6.8
27.5 and under 32.5	59.2	57.3	2.3	2.0	83.9	84.3	3.9	2.2	.6	0.6	34.5	18.6
32.5 and under 37.5	86.2	61.9	54.7	6.3	99.9	89.0	9.9	4.0	5.0	1.0	56.4	34.1
37.5 and under 42.5	93.6	67.9	79.2	22.1	100.0	90.2	61.5	19.5	59.0	13.7	84.6	77.5
42.5 and under 47.5	97.8	78.1	93.0	33.3	------	99.9	80.7	37.1	79.0	31.3	95.9	95.0
47.5 and under 52.5	99.1	81.9	97.3	44.8	------	100.0	94.3	66.7	93.6	63.4	100.0	99.4
52.5 and under 57.5	99.1	87.8	97.3	62.7	------	------	98.4	82.5	98.2	80.8	------	100.0
57.5 and under 62.5	99.4	93.2	98.2	79.1	------	------	98.8	92.2	98.6	91.4	------	------
62.5 and under 67.5	99.4	93.7	98.2	80.7	------	------	99.8	98.8	99.8	98.7	------	------
67.5 and under 72.5	99.9	94.5	99.7	83.1	------	------	99.8	99.9	99.8	99.9	------	------
72.5 and under 77.5	99.9	100.0	99.7	100.0	------	------	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	------	------
77.5 and under 82.5	99.9	------	99.7	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
82.5 and under 90.0	100.0	------	100.0	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------

Hourly entrance rate (in cents)	Glass						Iron and steel					
Under 12.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
12.5 and under 17.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
17.5 and under 22.5	(1)	------	------	------	0.2	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
22.5 and under 27.5	0.5	0.9	------	------	3.3	4.2	0.2	(1)	------	------	2.0	0.2
27.5 and under 32.5	4.5	1.9	3.9	------	7.3	9.1	2.0	0.3	0.1	(1)	19.7	2.0
32.5 and under 37.5	9.2	3.6	7.2	0.7	20.4	14.3	5.3	.5	2.8	(1)	26.1	3.3
37.5 and under 42.5	35.4	19.7	36.3	14.7	30.6	38.7	22.2	2.4	17.8	1.5	58.9	7.4
42.5 and under 47.5	74.4	36.4	73.2	35.3	81.0	40.1	70.8	8.4	68.0	3.7	95.0	33.2
47.5 and under 52.5	94.1	47.6	93.8	48.4	95.9	43.6	99.3	16.7	99.3	13.1	100.0	35.7
52.5 and under 57.5	100.0	80.6	100.0	80.6	100.0	80.2	100.0	32.1	100.0	24.9	------	69.2
57.5 and under 62.5	------	94.6	------	93.2	------	100.0	------	42.4	------	36.6	------	72.3
62.5 and under 67.5	------	100.0	------	100.0	------	------	------	99.2	------	99.0	------	100.0
67.5 and under 72.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	100.0	------	100.0	------	------

* Less than 50 employees; no distribution given for automobile parts in 1936 and rubber tires and inner tubes and soap in 1936 and 1937.

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

TABLE 7.—*Cumulative Percentage Distribution of Adult Male Common Laborers, by Hourly Entrance Rates, Industry, and Region, July 1936 and 1937*—Continued

Hourly entrance rate (in cents)	Leather						Lumber (sawmills)					
	United States		North		South		United States		North		South	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
Under 12.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	0.4	------	------	------	1.2
12.5 and under 17.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	4.8	2.9	------	------	13.8	8.2
17.5 and under 22.5	0.6	1.2	------	------	2.4	5.2	14.3	11.9	0.4	0.1	40.4	32.9
22.5 and under 27.5	1.8	3.6	0.2	------	6.5	15.7	34.0	28.2	3.2	2.9	91.6	72.8
27.5 and under 32.5	2.7	3.8	1.0	0.3	7.8	15.7	43.7	37.7	14.7	4.3	97.9	96.3
32.5 and under 37.5	17.1	6.2	6.6	.9	46.8	24.3	48.1	39.4	20.3	6.8	100.0	96.7
37.5 and under 42.5	61.9	32.9	49.4	19.9	96.6	77.5	51.3	47.9	25.2	18.2	------	100.0
42.5 and under 47.5	76.3	49.6	67.8	36.8	100.0	93.2	57.3	49.8	34.5	21.2	------	------
47.5 and under 52.5	86.3	68.3	81.4	59.1	------	100.0	79.3	55.0	68.3	29.3	------	------
52.5 and under 57.5	97.2	83.8	96.3	79.1	------	------	99.5	61.1	99.3	38.8	------	------
57.5 and under 62.5	99.8	97.6	99.8	96.9	------	------	100.0	76.1	100.0	62.4	------	------
62.5 and under 67.5	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	------	------	------	99.2	------	98.7	------	------
67.5 and under 72.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	100.0	------	100.0	------	------
	Paints and varnishes						Paper and pulp					
Under 12.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
12.5 and under 17.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
17.5 and under 22.5	(1)	0.1	(1)	0.1	------	------	0.1	(1)	------	------	0.3	0.1
22.5 and under 27.5	0.1	.4	(1)	.1	0.6	4.9	.8	0.1	(1)	------	3.4	.4
27.5 and under 32.5	3.0	.6	0.6	.1	25.0	7.9	9.7	1.8	0.4	0.3	40.9	5.3
32.5 and under 37.5	9.7	2.0	4.5	.3	57.6	31.1	20.2	9.7	2.3	.8	80.8	30.6
37.5 and under 42.5	60.0	9.8	57.2	6.7	86.4	62.9	62.6	25.0	51.9	7.4	99.0	66.5
42.5 and under 47.5	76.1	25.4	73.6	22.3	99.7	77.5	87.1	50.0	83.3	30.3	100.0	96.8
47.5 and under 52.5	89.0	37.9	87.9	34.7	100.0	90.9	92.6	74.1	90.5	63.4	------	99.3
52.5 and under 57.5	94.0	54.7	93.4	52.0	------	100.0	99.8	86.4	99.8	80.7	------	100.0
57.5 and under 62.5	99.4	70.3	99.4	68.5	------	------	100.0	89.0	100.0	84.4	------	------
62.5 and under 67.5	99.4	93.8	99.4	93.5	------	------	------	99.7	------	99.6	------	------
67.5 and under 72.5	99.6	94.8	99.6	94.5	------	------	------	100.0	------	100.0	------	------
72.5 and under 77.5	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	------	------						
	Petroleum refining						Rubber tires and inner tubes *					
Under 12.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
12.5 and under 17.5	0.1	------	0.1	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
17.5 and under 22.5	.1	------	.1	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
22.5 and under 27.5	.1	------	.1	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
27.5 and under 32.5	.4	------	.1	------	0.6	------	2.1	0.8	0.8	------	------	------
32.5 and under 37.5	.6	0.4	.1	------	1.0	0.9	7.4	.8	6.2	------	------	------
37.5 and under 42.5	13.5	1.4	1.2	0.2	26.4	3.3	37.9	15.7	37.1	15.0	------	------
42.5 and under 47.5	19.4	8.6	1.4	9.1	38.5	8.0	77.2	38.2	76.9	37.7	------	------
47.5 and under 52.5	42.0	29.6	25.0	15.4	60.1	52.2	95.4	88.3	95.4	88.1	------	------
52.5 and under 57.5	69.7	35.7	62.2	21.4	77.6	58.3	97.9	94.0	97.9	93.8	------	------
57.5 and under 62.5	91.9	47.9	84.2	37.3	100.0	64.8	97.9	99.4	97.9	99.3	------	------
62.5 and under 67.5	100.0	62.4	99.9	53.6	------	76.5	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	------	------
67.5 and under 72.5	------	85.5	100.0	82.4	------	90.3	------	------	------	------	------	------
72.5 and under 77.5	------	99.0	------	98.3	------	100.0	------	------	------	------	------	------
77.5 and under 82.5	------	100.0	------	100.0	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
	Slaughtering and meat packing						Soap *					
Under 12.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
12.5 and under 17.5	(1)	------	------	------	0.1	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
17.5 and under 22.5	0.3	0.4	(1)	(1)	2.4	2.4	------	------	------	------	------	------
22.5 and under 27.5	1.7	.6	(1)	0.1	15.4	3.4	------	------	------	------	------	------
27.5 and under 32.5	4.3	1.0	0.2	.1	38.1	6.1	1.1	------	1.2	------	------	------
32.5 and under 37.5	6.0	3.2	.6	.3	50.7	20.6	16.0	10.0	16.5	10.4	------	------
37.5 and under 42.5	16.3	5.9	6.4	2.9	98.0	24.1	55.2	42.9	54.0	42.0	------	------
42.5 and under 47.5	36.9	11.6	29.3	8.6	100.0	29.6	79.2	52.3	78.6	51.8	------	------
47.5 and under 52.5	99.8	17.8	99.8	13.1	------	46.6	100.0	66.1	100.0	64.7	------	------
52.5 and under 57.5	100.0	34.0	100.0	23.7	------	97.1	------	75.9	------	74.9	------	------
57.5 and under 62.5	------	78.5	------	75.0	------	100.0	------	80.8	------	80.0	------	------
62.5 and under 67.5	------	100.0	------	100.0	------	------	------	85.1	------	84.5	------	------
67.5 and under 72.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	100.0	------	100.0	------	------

* Less than 50 employees; no distribution given for automobile parts in 1936 and rubber tires and inner tubes and soap in 1936 and 1937.

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

TABLE 7.—*Cumulative Percentage Distribution of Adult Male Common Laborers, by Hourly Entrance Rates, Industry, and Region, July 1936 and 1937*—Continued

Hourly entrance rate (in cents)	Electric light and power						Electric street railways and city motor-bus operation and maintenance					
	United States		North		South		United States		North		South	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
Under 12.5	------	(1)	------	(1)	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
12.5 and under 17.5	------	(1)	------	(1)	------	------	(1)	------	------	------	0.1	------
17.5 and under 22.5	0.3	0.1	------	(1)	1.1	0.3	1.7	1.2	0.5	------	5.3	8.6
22.5 and under 27.5	5.7	3.1	0.1	(1)	20.0	9.3	4.1	2.7	1.3	0.7	12.2	15.3
27.5 and under 32.5	17.7	10.5	1.3	0.5	58.8	30.8	21.7	13.9	10.5	5.6	54.4	65.1
32.5 and under 37.5	23.3	14.8	5.5	3.8	68.0	37.2	36.9	19.8	22.5	9.8	78.9	81.4
37.5 and under 42.5	54.4	41.7	37.5	24.8	96.4	76.2	57.8	37.5	44.8	29.8	95.7	85.7
42.5 and under 47.5	63.1	50.3	48.6	34.0	99.3	83.4	67.7	54.0	56.7	46.8	100.0	99.3
47.5 and under 52.5	88.3	77.8	83.6	67.4	100.0	99.0	79.1	63.8	72.0	58.2	------	99.6
52.5 and under 57.5	92.4	87.2	89.3	81.0	------	99.7	94.7	72.6	93.0	68.3	------	100.0
57.5 and under 62.5	95.3	96.8	93.4	95.1	------	100.0	98.8	90.3	98.4	88.8	------	------
62.5 and under 67.5	98.3	99.8	97.6	99.5	------	------	99.1	92.6	98.8	91.5	------	------
67.5 and under 72.5	98.8	99.9	98.3	99.7	------	------	99.5	99.5	99.3	99.5	------	------
72.5 and under 77.5	100.0	99.9	100.0	99.7	------	------	100.0	99.5	100.0	99.5	------	------
77.5 and under 82.5	------	99.9	------	99.8	------	------	------	100.0	------	100.0	------	------
82.5 and under 90.0	------	100.0	------	100.0	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
	Manufactured and natural gas						Building construction					
Under 12.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	(1)	------	(1)	------	------
12.5 and under 17.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	0.1	------	(1)	------	0.2
17.5 and under 22.5	(1)	(1)	------	------	0.1	0.2	0.8	.5	------	(1)	3.1	1.6
22.5 and under 27.5	1.5	0.2	(1)	------	3.8	1.0	4.6	5.5	0.4	(1)	16.7	17.0
27.5 and under 32.5	12.1	2.8	0.6	0.1	29.6	11.5	8.9	10.8	.9	0.3	31.5	32.7
32.5 and under 37.5	19.4	4.1	3.0	.4	44.4	15.9	12.3	14.7	3.3	1.7	37.7	41.9
37.5 and under 42.5	52.5	25.5	34.4	12.4	79.9	67.3	34.5	31.2	21.4	9.2	71.1	77.1
42.5 and under 47.5	65.6	48.4	54.0	37.4	83.1	83.8	43.6	37.2	28.7	13.7	85.4	86.2
47.5 and under 52.5	85.3	82.5	76.5	76.9	98.3	100.0	70.0	54.3	64.2	36.6	86.4	90.9
52.5 and under 57.5	92.2	91.8	88.0	89.2	98.3	------	74.7	56.4	68.1	39.6	93.3	91.4
57.5 and under 62.5	95.5	94.8	93.5	93.1	98.3	------	77.8	64.8	70.1	49.5	99.8	96.9
62.5 and under 67.5	99.6	96.8	99.3	95.8	100.0	------	83.3	75.3	77.6	63.6	100.0	99.8
67.5 and under 72.5	100.0	99.9	100.0	99.9	------	------	87.6	78.5	83.4	68.3	------	99.8
72.5 and under 77.5	------	100.0	------	100.0	------	------	91.3	84.8	88.4	77.6	------	100.0
77.5 and under 82.5	------	------	------	------	------	------	95.8	87.3	94.4	81.2	------	------
82.5 and under 90.0	------	------	------	------	------	------	96.7	91.8	95.6	87.8	------	------
90.0 and under 100.0	------	------	------	------	------	------	99.5	97.3	99.4	96.0	------	------
100.0 and under 110.0	------	------	------	------	------	------	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	------	------

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

As regards the cumulative percentage distributions for the country as a whole in 1937, the industries with less than 1 percent of common laborers paid under 37.5 cents per hour were iron and steel, petroleum refining, and rubber tires and inner tubes. In addition to these industries, several others had fewer than 5 percent earning less than 37.5 cents, namely, automobile parts, foundry and machine-shop products, glass, paints and varnishes, slaughtering and meat packing, and manufactured and natural gas. The industries with 5 and under 10 percent earning less than 37.5 cents were leather and paper and pulp, while those with 10 and under 15 percent were cement, chemicals, soap, electric light and power, and building construction. The industries with the largest proportion of common laborers paid less than 37.5 cents were brick, tile, and terra cotta (15.0 percent), electric street railways and motorbus operation and maintenance (19.8 percent), lumber (39.4 percent), and fertilizers (61.9 percent).

A somewhat different picture, however, is obtained by looking at the percentages of employees receiving less than 37.5 cents per hour in 1937 separately for each region. In the North, there were three industries (cement, petroleum refining, and rubber tires and inner tubes) in which not a single laborer was paid under 37.5 cents per hour. Less than 1 percent were found below that limit in eight industries, and five others reported between 1 and 5 percent in the same classification. The industries having the largest proportion of common laborers paid under 37.5 cents were fertilizers (6.3 percent), lumber (6.8 percent), electric street railways and city motorbus operation and maintenance (9.8 percent), and soap (10.4 percent). In the southern region, on the other hand, two industries (petroleum refining and iron and steel) had less than 5 percent paid under that amount. Only four additional industries, namely, glass, manufactured and natural gas, slaughtering and meat packing, and leather, had less than 25 percent of the laborers paid under 37.5 cents. Among the industries with 25 and under 50 percent in that classification were chemicals, paper and pulp, paints and varnishes, foundry and machine-shop products, electric light and power, cement, and building construction. Lastly, the percentage of common laborers under 37.5 cents amounted to 74.3 percent in brick, tile, and terra cotta, 81.4 percent in electric street railways and city motorbus operation and maintenance, 89.0 percent in fertilizers, and 96.7 percent in lumber (sawmills).[4]

It should be noted that in all but three instances the percentage of those paid under 37.5 cents was less in 1937 than in 1936. One of the exceptions was electric street railways and city motorbus operation and maintenance in the southern region, where the percentage increased from 78.9 in 1936 to 81.4 in 1937. Another exception was building construction in the southern region, where the percentage rose from 37.7 in 1936 to 41.9 in 1937. As a result, there was also an increase in the percentage for this industry in the country as a whole, namely, from 12.3 in 1936 to 14.7 in 1937.

Taking the number paid 67.5 cents and over, it will be seen that for the country as a whole there were five industries (cement, glass, leather,

[4] The percentage of common laborers receiving under 40 cents for the country as a whole was 2.9 in automobile parts (covers only the northern region), 20.4 in brick, tile, and terra cotta (10.0 in the North and 74.3 in the South), 13.1 in cement (none in the North and 46.8 in the South), 23.7 in chemicals (0.1 in the North and 53.6 in the South), 62.2 in fertilizers (7.2 in the North and 89.0 in the South), 5.3 in foundry and machine-shop products (1.2 in the North and 47.1 in the South), 3.5 in glass (0.7 in the North and 14.2 in the South), 0.9 in iron and steel (0.4 in the North and 3.4 in the South), 10.3 in leather (2.0 in the North and 39.0 in the South), 44.9 in lumber (15.1 in the North and 97.4 in the South), 2.3 in paints and varnishes (0.7 in the North and 32.3 in the South), 14.5 in paper and pulp (1.7 in the North and 44.8 in the South), 0.9 in petroleum refining (none in the North and 2.2 in the South), 0.8 in rubber tires and inner tubes (regional percentages not given as they might lead to plant identity), 3.6 in slaughtering and meat packing (0.4 in the North and 23.4 in the South), 28.1 in soap (regional percentages not given as they might lead to plant identity), 15.5 in electric light and power (4.4 in the North and 38.3 in the South), 23.3 in electric street railways and city motorbus operation and maintenance (13.6 in the North and 83.1 in the South), 6.5 in manufactured and natural gas (0.4 in the North and 25.6 in the South), and 14.9 in building construction (1.8 in the North and 42.3 in the South).

rubber tires and inner tubes, and slaughtering and meat packing) with no common laborers receiving that amount and above. There were six other industries (brick, tile, and terrra cotta, foundry and machine shop products, iron and steel, lumber, paper and pulp, and electric light and power) that had an insignificant number of laborers paid 67.5 cents and over. Among the remaining industries, the percentages receiving that amount and above were 3.2 in manufactured and natural gas, 6.2 in paints and varnishes, 6.3 in fertilizers, 7.4 in electric street railways and city motorbus operation and maintenance, 9.3 in chemicals, 11.2 in automobile parts, 14.9 in soap, 24.7 in building construction, and 37.6 in petroleum refining.

Nearly all of the common laborers paid 67.5 cents and over were employed in the northern region. In the southern region, outside of an insignificant number in building construction, petroleum refining was the only industry with a relatively large number (23.5 percent) of common laborers paid 67.5 cents and over.[5]

A comparison of the data between the 2 years by industry and region also shows that in all but two instances the percentage of common laborers receiving 67.5 cents and over was higher in 1937 than in 1936. The exception was electric light and power, where the

[4] The percentage of common laborers paid 70 cents and over in the country as a whole was 11.2 in automobile parts (covers only the northern region), 1.5 in brick, tile, and terra cotta (1.7 in the North and none in the South), none in cement, 1.4 in chemicals (2.6 in the North and none in the South), 6.0 in fertilizers (18.3 in the North and none in the South), 1.2 in foundry and machine-shop products (1.3 in the North and none in the South), none in glass and iron and steel, less than 1/10 of 1 percent in leather (less than 1/10 of 1 percent in the North and none in the South), less than 1/10 of 1 percent in lumber (less than 1/10 of 1 percent in the North and none in the South), 5.9 percent in paints and varnishes (6.3 in the North and none in the South), 0.3 percent in paper and pulp (0.4 in the North and none in the South), 32.7 percent in petroleum refining (46.0 in the North and 11.8 in the South), none in rubber tires and inner tubes, none in slaughtering and meat packing, 14.9 in soap (regional percentages not given as they might lead to plant identity), 0.2 in electric light and power (0.4 in the North and none in the South), 0.5 in electric street railways and city motorbus operation and maintenance (0.5 in the North and none in the South), 0.5 in manufactured and natural gas (0.7 in the North and none in the South), and 23.9 in building construction (35.3 in the North and 0.2 in the South).

[5] These figures are not strictly comparable from year to year. In order to reduce the data to a basis of strict comparability, it would be necessary to do the following: First, calculate link relatives from averages computed for 2 successive years by using identical establishments and weighting the entrance rates for both years by the number of workers actually receiving these rates in the current year; and, second, weld the links together into a continuous chain using 1926 or some other year as a base or 100. However, computing the averages on the basis of identical establishments would greatly reduce the coverage each year. Furthermore, rough calculations indicate that the average would not be greatly changed by this refinement of method.

Even if the averages for each industry were not computed on the basis of identical establishments, the influence due to shifts in the industry weights upon the group averages from year to year could be eliminated, as follows: First, compute group averages each year using the industry weights for the succeeding year; second, calculate the percentage of change on the basis of constant weights between the 2 years; and, third, link together the percentages of change into a continuous chain with 1926 or some other year as a base or 100.

This method has been used and produces no significant differences from the figures given in table 8. The averages for the manufacturing industries covered are 40.1 cents in 1926, then in series 40.1, 40.6, 40.7, 40.3, 37.4, 31.7, 30.6, 40.4, 41.5, and 42.7 cents in 1936.

For all industries covered, the averages are 42.5 cents in 1926, then in series 42.6, 42.8, 43.2, 42.7, 39.9, 34.9, 33.4, 41.7, 42.2, and 43.9 cents in 1936.

As a measure of changing labor costs, these averages are perhaps more useful than those in the table. But labor costs for common labor cannot be studied apart from productivity or without regard to the rates of that labor.

As a measure of what could be earned at common labor, the figures in the table are probably more useful than those that seek comparability as described above. After all, in terms of the opportunity to earn, the change in weights is significant.

percentage for the northern region declined from 2.4 in 1936 to 0.5 in 1937. This resulted in a reduction of the percentage for this industry in the country as a whole from 1.7 in 1936 to 0.2 in 1937.

Trend of Entrance Rates, 1926 to 1937

The average entrance rates per hour of common labor are now available annually for a period of 12 years, namely from 1926 to 1937, inclusive. However, in view of the change in the industries covered in 1936, comparable data [6] can only be presented for 13 of the 20 industries. Out of the 13 industries, 9 are manufacturing (brick, tile, and terra cotta, cement, foundry and machine-shop products, iron and steel, leather, lumber, paper and pulp, petroleum refining, and slaughtering and meat packing), 3 are public utilities (electric light and power, electric street railways and city motorbus operation and maintenance, and manufactured and natural gas), and the remaining one is building construction. The figures for each of the 3 industry groups, as well as for all 13 industries combined, are presented in table 8.

TABLE 8.—*Average Hourly Entrance Rates of Adult Male Common Laborers in 13 Industries, by Industry Group, 1926 to 1937*

July—	All industries covered	Manufacturing industries covered	Public utilities	Building construction [1]
1926	$0.426	$0.401	$0.420	$0.471
1927	.424	.399	.398	.482
1928	.428	.402	.429	.474
1929	.432	.407	.428	.483
1930	.429	.405	.446	.470
1931	.403	.383	.446	.426
1932	.355	.318	.415	.399
1933	.333	.305	.387	.383
1934	.420	.407	.418	.455
1935	.430	.415	.420	.481
1936	.434	.425	.437	.509
1937	.514	.514	.467	.553

[1] For the years 1926 to 1935, inclusive, the figures cover a small amount of construction outside of the building industry.

The average hourly entrance rates for the nine manufacturing industries combined from 1926 to 1930 remained fairly constant at about 40 cents. However, the decline during the depression, most of which occurred between 1931 and 1932, brought the average down to about 30 cents (or 25 percent) in 1933. By 1934, on the other hand, the average had returned to the predepression level, namely, to 40.7 cents, which may be attributed largely to the minimum-wage provisions of the N. R. A. codes. It continued to rise slowly from 1934 to 1936, at which time it reached 42.5 cents, but the sudden increase during the past year has now raised it to 51.4 cents.

The trend of the average entrance rates per hour in building construction is similar to that found in the manufacturing industries.

[6] See footnote on opposite page.

Starting with considerable constancy in the averages (at the 47- to 48-cent level) for the period of 1926 to 1930, inclusive, the average in building construction dropped to 38.3 cents (a decrease of about 20 percent) in 1933. It returned to the predepression level in 1935 (a year later than the manufacturing industries), and it increased to 55.3 cents in 1937. It will be seen, however, that the fluctuations in building construction since 1930 have been smaller than in the manufacturing industries.

Public utilities from 1926 to 1929 tended to average about 2 cents an hour more than manufacturing and about 5 cents less than building construction. While common labor rates fell in both of these latter industries in 1930 and 1931, they rose among reporting public-utility companies, from about 43 to 44.6 cents and were about 2 cents higher than in building construction in 1931. By 1933 they had declined to 38.7 cents and were about on the same level as common-labor rates among reporting building-construction firms. By 1935 public-utility common-labor rates had risen to the 1926–29 level, as had rates in building construction. They shared in the moderate increase in 1936, but in 1937 they rose less than either manufacturing or building construction.

UNION SCALES OF WAGES AND HOURS IN PRINTING TRADES, MAY 15, 1937 [1]

By JOSEPH J. SENTURIA and FRANK S. MCELROY, *Bureau of Labor Statistics*

HOURLY WAGE rates for union members in the printing trades increased 3.8 percent in newspaper work and 3.1 percent in book and job work between May 15, 1936, and May 15, 1937. During the same period, average scales of hours per week in union agreements decreased 0.9 percent for newspaper workers and 0.2 percent for book and job workers.

The 1937 average hourly rate for all union newspaper workers in the 70 cities surveyed was $1.305 and for book and job workers $1.108. The average scale of hours was 38.7 per week in newspaper work and 39.9 in book and job work. More than 80 percent of the book and job workers were on a 40-hour basis. In newspaper work about 48 percent were working on a 37½-hour week and 23 percent on 40-hour scales. Over half of the night newspaper workers had 37½-hour scales.

More than 50 percent of the book and job rate quotations and more than 60 percent of the newspaper rate quotations showed wage increases over 1936. These increases affected 62 percent of the members in book and job work and 67 percent of those in newspaper work. Decreases in hour scales affected about 3 percent of the book and job members and 9 percent of the newspaper members. Increased scales of hours were reported for 4.5 percent of the newspaper workers.

Trend of Union Wage Rates and Hours

Wage rates.—The index of hourly wage rates for union members in all printing trades increased 3.4 percent between May 15, 1936, and May 15, 1937. The index for the newspaper trades increased to 107, the highest level since the annual surveys were begun in 1907. The book and job index rose to 106.7, also an all-time high. In comparison with the base year of the series (1929) the newspaper index increased 0.3 of a point more than the book and job index.

The wage index for the book and job trades has advanced 11.3 percent, and the newspaper index 13.2 percent from the depression

[1] This report is based on union rates obtained by agents of the Bureau of Labor Statistics for May 15 of each year. The annual surveys date back to 1907 and originally included 39 cities. The coverage has been gradually extended until it now covers 70 cities. The present report includes a total of 89,000 members of printing unions, about 58,000 in book and job trades and 31,000 in newspaper trades. A full description of the scope and method of the surveys was printed in the Monthly Labor Review for November 1937, in connection with the report on "Union Scales of Wages and Hours in the Building Trades," (pp. 1184-1199).

low. The increase in the book and job index since 1933 has been somewhat more regular than that of the newspaper index, from two to three points each year. The index for the newspaper trades rose slightly more than one point in 1934, almost six points in 1935, one and one-half points in 1936, and almost four points in 1937.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Union Scales of Hourly Wage Rates and Weekly Hours in the Printing Trades, 1907 to 1937*

[1929=100.0]

Year	Book and job		Newspaper		Year	Book and job		Newspaper	
	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours		Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours
1907	30.0	122.4	39.2	102.3	1923	88.3	100.2	84.4	102.2
1908	33.3	116.8	41.3	101.8	1924	92.0	100.2	89.5	100.8
1909	35.7	115.8	43.1	101.5	1925	92.9	100.3	91.1	100.5
1910	37.6	115.4	44.6	101.3	1926	95.0	100.1	93.1	100.7
1911	38.6	115.4	45.2	101.3	1927	97.3	100.1	95.9	100.4
1912	39.3	115.3	46.0	101.1	1928	98.7	100.1	98.3	100.2
1913	40.0	115.3	47.0	101.0	1929	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1914	40.9	115.3	47.5	100.8	1930	101.8	99.9	101.0	99.8
1915	41.1	115.3	47.8	100.7	1931	102.5	99.9	101.3	99.8
1916	41.7	115.3	48.0	100.6	1932	101.4	96.1	101.1	97.3
1917	43.2	115.3	49.2	100.6	1933	95.8	95.1	94.5	96.8
1918	47.8	115.3	51.6	100.6	1934	98.4	91.8	95.8	89.1
1919	58.9	115.2	62.2	100.8	1935	100.6	90.4	101.6	87.6
1920	76.9	110.9	76.1	100.7	1936	103.5	90.5	103.1	86.5
1921	84.7	102.1	82.8	100.4	1937	106.7	90.3	107.0	85.7
1922	85.0	100.8	83.5	102.4					

During the 30 years since the inception of the Bureau's series, the wage-rate indexes for both the book and job trades and the newspaper trades have shown increases in every year except 1932 and 1933. The 1937 book and job index is 356 percent and the newspaper index 273 percent of the 1907 figures. The relatively more rapid movement in the book and job wage-rate index occurred principally in the periods from 1907 to 1911 and from 1917 to 1921. Both indexes rose during these years but that of the book and job trades increased more rapidly than that of the newspaper trades.

Hours.—Average scales of hours per week, as reported by identical unions, declined 0.5 percent between May 15, 1936, and May 15, 1937. The index for newspaper trades fell relatively more (0.9 percent) than that for the book and job trades (0.2 percent). The 1937 index of hours per week in the newspaper trades was 85.7, or 14.3 percent below the base year, 1929. The index in the book and job printing trades (90.3) was 9.7 percent under 1929. The indexes in both sections of the printing industry indicate that the average scales of hours per week in 1937 were lower than at any time since the Bureau's studies were begun 30 years ago.

Since 1907 the book and job index of hour scales has fallen 26.3 percent, as compared to 16.3 percent in the newspaper trades. As a

result, average hours in book and job trades, which were much higher than the newspaper average in 1907, are now only slightly above it.[2] The declines in weekly scales of hours for the book and job trades were recorded principally in the years 1908, 1920 and 1921, 1932 and 1934. The index was practically constant from 1910 to 1920 and from 1923 to 1931. The newspaper index showed only slight changes down to 1932, except for an increase of two points in 1922 which counteracted all the decreases since 1907. Practically all of the reduction in hours in newspaper trades took place in the years 1932 and 1934.

Trend of Wage Rates and Hours, by Trades

Indexes for each trade from 1907 to 1937 are shown in table 2. Separate indexes for day and night work in the newspaper trades are not shown, since the movement from year to year is very similar.

The index of hourly wage rates for every printing trade advanced from 1936 to 1937. In the book and job section, press assistants and feeders had the greatest relative increase, 5.2 percent. The typographical union trades—hand compositors, machine operators, and machine tenders—led the newspaper group, each with 4.3 percent advances over the year.

In each trade the wage-rate index now stands at the highest point reached during the series. The photoengravers show the greatest relative gain in wage rates since 1916, among both book and job and newspaper trades. Of the book and job trades included in the series since 1907, press assistants and feeders show the greatest and machine operators have the smallest relative gain since 1907. Newspaper trades show less variation in changes since 1907 although stereotypers advanced somewhat less than the other trades in the group.

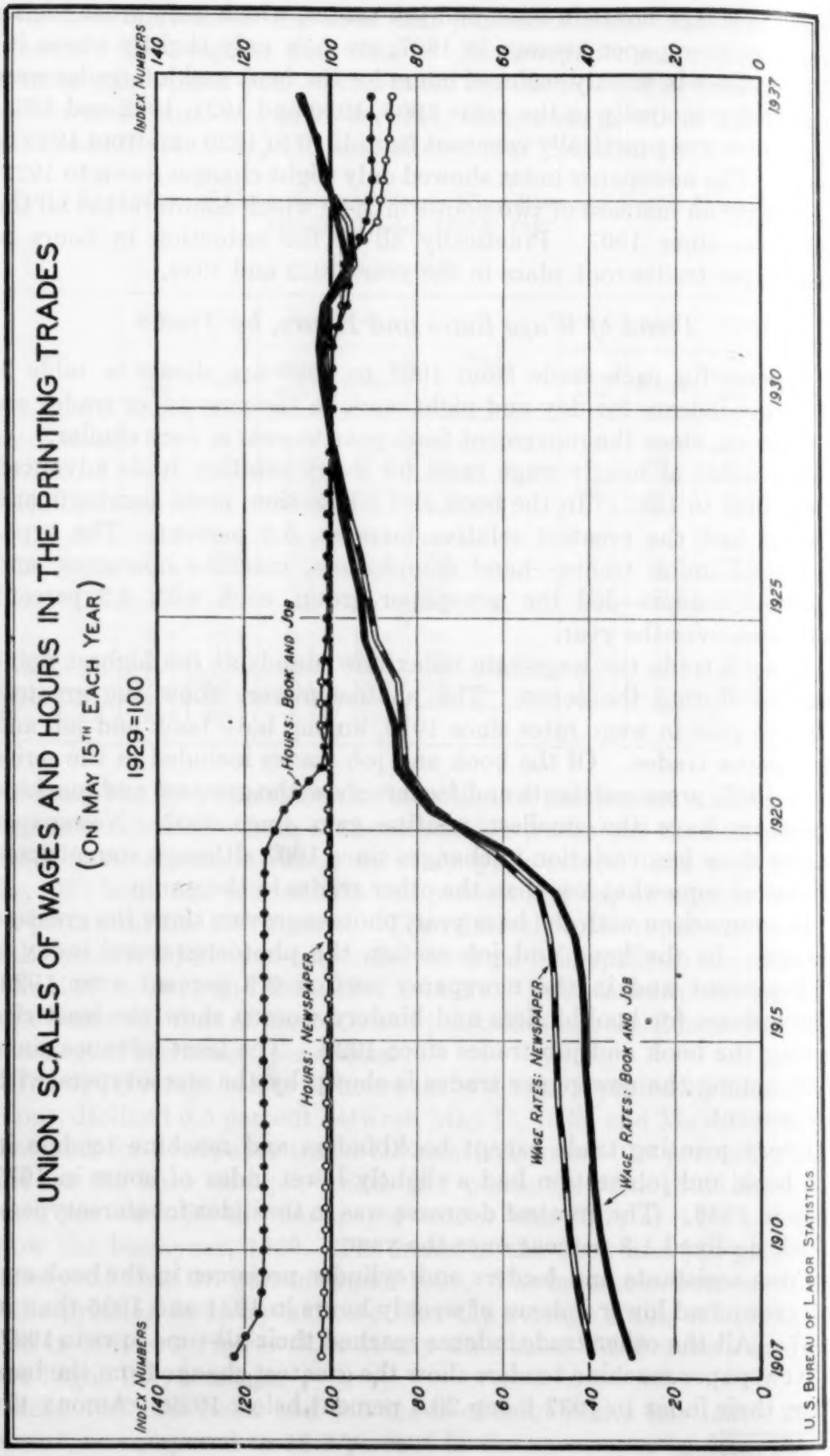
In comparison with the base year, photoengravers show the greatest change. In the book and job section the photoengravers' index is 13.7 percent and in the newspaper section 9.9 percent over 1929. The indexes for bookbinders and bindery women show the least rise among the book and job trades since 1929. The least advance since 1929 among the newspaper trades is shown by the stereotypers, with 5.2 percent.

Every printing trade except bookbinders and machine tenders in the book and job section had a slightly lower index of hours in 1937 than in 1936. The greatest decrease was in the index for stereotypers, which declined 1.8 percent over the year.

Press assistants and feeders and cylinder pressmen in the book and job group had lower indexes of weekly hours in 1934 and 1935 than in 1937. All the other trade indexes reached their all-time lows in 1937.

Newspaper machine tenders show the greatest change from the base year, their index in 1937 being 20.3 percent below 1929. Among the

[2] See p. 1514 below.


UNION SCALES OF WAGES AND HOURS IN THE PRINTING TRADES
(ON MAY 15TH EACH YEAR)
1929=100
INDEX NUMBERS
140
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
1907
1910
1915
1920
1925
1930
1937
HOURS: BOOK AND JOB
HOURS: NEWSPAPER
WAGE RATES: NEWSPAPER
WAGE RATES: BOOK AND JOB
U.S. BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

book and job trades during the same period, photoengravers have had the greatest change in weekly hours, their index being 14.8 percent under that for 1929.

Since 1907 the greatest relative reduction in hours scales among book and job trades has been gained by the press assistants (24 percent) and the bookbinders (23.3 percent). The typographical union trades show the greatest relative reduction in hours scales among newspaper trades over the longer period (compositors 17.8 percent and machine operators 19.1 percent since 1907; machine tenders 20.8 percent since 1912). Web pressmen show the least reduction (14.1 percent) since 1907.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Union Scales of Wages and Hours in Printing Trades*

BOOK AND JOB

[1929=100.0]

Year	Bindery women		Bookbinders		Compositors, hand		Machine operators		Machine tenders (machinists)	
	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours
1907	-------	-------	33.5	119.4	35.9	108.8	38.0	107.8	-------	-------
1908	-------	-------	37.0	108.7	36.0	108.8	39.4	107.8	-------	-------
1909	-------	-------	37.5	108.1	36.0	108.8	40.9	107.8	-------	-------
1910	-------	-------	37.9	107.7	37.6	108.8	42.3	107.8	-------	-------
1911	-------	-------	38.6	107.4	38.6	108.8	42.8	107.8	-------	-------
1912	-------	-------	38.8	107.4	39.4	108.7	43.8	107.5	43.9	108.6
1913	-------	-------	39.8	107.4	39.9	108.7	45.0	107.5	44.6	108.6
1914	-------	-------	40.4	107.4	40.9	108.7	45.5	107.5	44.7	108.6
1915	37.3	107.0	40.5	107.4	41.1	108.7	45.6	107.5	44.9	108.6
1916	37.9	107.0	40.6	107.4	42.0	108.7	45.7	107.7	45.0	108.8
1917	40.6	107.0	43.1	107.4	42.9	108.7	46.8	107.7	46.1	108.8
1918	45.3	107.0	48.4	107.4	47.3	108.7	50.5	107.7	50.6	108.8
1919	58.7	107.0	61.8	107.4	57.8	108.7	60.9	107.7	62.2	108.8
1920	81.1	107.0	81.2	107.4	76.1	108.7	77.6	107.7	77.9	108.8
1921	94.7	102.1	88.9	101.9	87.3	102.8	87.8	102.1	90.1	100.8
1922	91.7	100.8	85.3	100.9	88.8	100.7	87.9	100.6	89.0	100.4
1923	95.8	100.3	90.5	100.4	90.9	99.7	89.5	100.2	90.8	100.1
1924	97.2	100.3	94.5	100.1	94.9	100.0	93.3	99.8	94.8	100.0
1925	98.3	100.3	95.6	100.4	94.4	100.0	93.3	100.2	94.9	100.2
1926	96.4	100.5	97.3	100.3	96.3	100.0	94.4	100.0	98.2	100.0
1927	98.7	99.9	99.4	100.0	98.0	100.0	98.1	100.2	98.8	100.0
1928	99.2	99.8	98.9	100.7	99.5	100.0	98.4	100.0	99.2	100.0
1929	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	100.7	99.9	101.2	99.9	102.2	100.0	102.7	100.0	101.8	100.0
1931	101.2	99.8	101.6	99.8	102.8	100.0	103.2	100.0	102.9	100.0
1932	98.7	99.9	97.9	99.7	102.5	99.7	103.3	99.9	103.5	100.0
1933	94.8	99.9	94.4	99.6	96.3	96.5	96.9	95.6	97.4	95.0
1934	99.6	93.5	97.9	93.1	97.3	94.1	97.0	92.9	100.4	91.5
1935	100.5	92.8	99.3	91.5	99.0	92.4	98.6	91.2	100.9	90.7
1936 [1]	102.4	92.4	100.6	91.5	102.0	91.7	102.0	90.4	104.0	90.2
1937	104.0	91.9	103.4	91.5	105.8	91.6	104.8	90.3	107.0	90.2

	Electrotypers		Photoengravers		Press assistants and feeders		Pressmen, cylinder		Pressmen, platen	
1907	32.5	108.1	-------	-------	27.7	120.7	35.4	115.8	35.1	114.2
1908	32.6	107.7	-------	-------	30.7	109.6	37.2	110.2	36.2	110.3
1909	32.8	107.5	-------	-------	31.2	108.5	40.3	108.6	37.5	108.0
1910	34.1	104.7	-------	-------	31.8	108.3	40.6	108.4	38.1	107.8
1911	36.1	104.0	-------	-------	33.1	108.3	41.4	108.4	38.9	107.8
1912	36.6	104.0	-------	-------	33.6	108.3	42.1	108.4	39.4	107.8
1913	37.3	103.8	-------	-------	34.4	108.1	42.6	108.4	40.2	107.9
1914	39.0	103.6	-------	-------	35.3	108.1	43.6	108.4	40.8	107.9
1915	39.9	103.6	-------	-------	35.5	108.1	43.6	108.4	41.0	107.9
1916	41.0	103.5	38.9	108.9	36.0	108.1	44.2	108.4	41.8	107.9

[1] Minor corrections have been made in the indexes for some trades for 1936.

U.S. BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Union Scales of Wages and Hours in Printing Trades*—Continued

BOOK AND JOB—Continued

Year	Electrotypers		Photoengravers		Press assistants and feeders		Pressmen, cylinder		Pressmen, platen	
	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours
1917	42.3	103.4	42.3	108.9	37.9	108.1	45.0	108.4	43.9	107.9
1918	44.4	103.4	44.9	108.6	44.3	108.1	49.9	108.4	48.4	107.9
1919	50.9	103.4	52.3	108.6	57.1	108.1	60.5	108.4	59.4	107.9
1920	72.9	103.3	72.2	100.2	78.4	108.0	78.6	108.4	80.5	107.8
1921	84.7	100.1	76.9	100.0	84.8	102.2	86.8	102.4	89.9	102.2
1922	86.4	98.7	77.6	100.0	82.1	101.1	84.8	101.2	87.9	101.6
1923	91.8	99.6	78.4	100.0	91.9	100.4	91.5	100.7	91.5	100.3
1924	95.2	99.3	83.9	100.0	91.1	100.6	94.2	100.9	94.3	100.6
1925	94.9	100.2	86.0	100.2	96.2	100.3	95.4	100.4	94.8	100.5
1926	95.8	100.2	91.5	100.0	97.3	100.2	97.3	100.2	99.3	99.7
1927	96.9	100.3	95.9	100.0	98.5	100.1	97.5	100.2	100.2	99.7
1928	97.7	100.2	98.6	100.0	99.1	100.0	98.3	100.0	98.5	99.9
1929	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	102.9	98.8	100.2	99.8	101.2	100.0	101.8	100.0	101.7	100.0
1931	105.2	98.1	100.5	99.8	102.0	100.0	102.5	100.0	102.2	100.5
1932	104.8	98.2	103.5	94.9	97.6	87.9	99.8	91.4	100.0	98.2
1933	98.2	93.1	101.5	91.7	90.9	92.9	93.6	92.4	93 1	95.9
1934	105.1	90.1	103.1	90.5	94.4	89.8	96.3	89.2	95.7	92.0
1935	106.7	88.2	109.6	86.9	96.5	89.6	97.5	88.9	96.4	91.3
1936 [1]	107.1	86.5	112.3	85.7	99.7	91.9	101.5	90.7	100.4	91.3
1937	108.5	86.3	113.7	85.2	104.8	91.7	105.1	90.4	105.0	90.9

NEWSPAPER

Year	Compositors, hand		Machine operators		Machine tenders (machinists)		Photoengravers		Pressmen, web presses		Stereotypers	
	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours
1907	39.1	101.6	40.0	101.6	-------	-------	-------	-------	38.1	101.4	41.6	105.5
1908	41.2	101.5	41.8	101.6	-------	-------	-------	-------	40.4	99.6	43.9	103.9
1909	43.4	101.5	43.1	101.6	-------	-------	-------	-------	42.2	98.9	45.3	102.8
1910	45.2	101.5	44.4	101.6	-------	-------	-------	-------	43.6	98.6	46.4	101.6
1911	46.1	101.5	44.8	101.6	-------	-------	-------	-------	43.9	98.6	46.7	101.4
1912	47.1	101.2	45.6	101.3	49.6	100.6	-------	-------	44.5	98.4	47.4	101.2
1913	47.9	101.2	46.4	101.2	50.0	100.6	-------	-------	45.5	98.4	50.2	101.3
1914	48.4	100.9	46.9	100.9	50.3	100.5	-------	-------	45.8	98.4	50.7	101.1
1915	48.7	100.8	47.3	100.6	50.6	100.3	-------	-------	46.0	98.4	50.8	101.0
1916	48.9	100.7	47.5	100.5	50.7	100.2	42.7	106.9	46.3	98.4	51.3	101.0
1917	50.1	100.7	48.9	100.5	51.3	100.2	44.6	106.9	47.2	98.3	52.6	100.9
1918	52.3	100.8	50.6	100.7	53.8	100.3	48.3	105.7	50.9	98.3	54.8	100.9
1919	62.9	100.8	61.6	100.7	68.3	100.3	56.9	105.4	62.7	99.0	61.7	101.0
1920	76.4	101.1	76.3	100.8	84.3	100.4	65.6	104.3	77.5	98.6	75.3	100.5
1921	83.3	100.9	81.2	100.6	87.9	100.4	77.6	101.1	83.0	98.4	87.7	99.1
1922	85.2	102.1	83.4	102.1	88.7	101.0	81.3	101.8	78.7	103.5	86.4	101.0
1923	86.0	102.1	84.3	102.0	88.9	101.0	81.0	100.9	79.8	103.0	88.1	100.9
1924	90.6	101.1	89.4	100.6	94.0	100.4	84.4	100.9	88.7	99.8	90.7	100.8
1925	91.3	101.0	91.1	100.6	91.4	100.9	87.8	100.2	92.7	99.2	93.1	100.4
1926	93.4	101.2	93.4	100.3	90.5	100.7	94.4	99.8	92.7	100.3	94.3	100.4
1927	96.5	100.6	95.4	100.2	95.7	100.1	95.7	100.2	97.5	100.1	95.5	100.2
1928	98.3	100.4	98.9	99.9	97.9	100.3	99.5	100.0	99.6	99.7	95.5	100.7
1929	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	100.9	99.7	100.8	99.8	100.8	99.8	101.6	99.9	101.7	99.8	100.8	100.0
1931	101.0	99.7	100.9	99.8	101.0	99.8	102.6	99.5	102.3	99.8	101.2	100.1
1932	100.0	97.6	100.2	95.9	100.4	92.9	103.8	99.4	103.6	97.8	100.2	99.3
1933	93.4	96.5	93.7	95.2	93.3	92.1	96.0	99.6	97.0	98.7	94.6	98.1
1934	94.8	86.7	94.9	85.2	94.5	82.6	100.5	95.5	97.2	93.9	96.0	94.9
1935	100.9	85.6	101.2	84.3	100.9	81.4	105.3	92.4	102.5	91.8	100.5	92.7
1936 [1]	102.7	84.0	102.9	82.7	102.8	80.0	107.9	92.1	103.1	91.4	102.0	92.3
1937	107.1	83.5	107.3	82.2	107.2	79.7	109.9	91.1	106.5	90.3	105.2	90.6

[1] Minor corrections have been made in the indexes for some trades for 1936.

Changes Between 1936 and 1937

Wage rates.—Of the 1,719 quotations of union wage rates in the printing trades which were comparable with 1936 quotations, 992 or 57.7 percent reported increases. Only 17 quotations, scarcely 1 percent, showed decreases. The increases affected 63.7 percent of all the members covered. Only 0.4 percent of the total membership was affected by decreases.

In the book and job trades 52.5 percent of the comparable quotations showed increases in wage rates between May 15, 1936, and May 15, 1937. Less than 1 percent reported decreases and 46.6 percent indicated that no change had taken place during the year. Of the total members reported, 61.9 percent received increases, 37.9 percent had no change in their rates, and only 0.2 percent sustained decreases.

In 7 of the 10 book and job trades, over half the members received increases. Machine tenders led with 81.8 percent of their members having higher rates in 1937 than in 1936. Others with comparatively high percentages of members having increases were machine operators (80.8 percent), platen pressmen (77.0 percent), bookbinders (74.2 percent), and hand compositors (73.2 percent). The smallest percentage of members receiving increases in any trade was 24.5 for photoengravers. The eight decreases reported were distributed among three trades. In no trade were as many as 2 percent of the members affected by decreases in wage rates.

In the newspaper trades a higher percentage of the quotations (62.5) showed increased hourly rates. The percentage of total members benefited (66.9) was also higher than for the book and job industry. Photoengravers, web pressmen, and stereotypers reported 9 quotations (1.0 percent of the total) showing decreased hourly scales. These decreases affected only 0.6 percent of the union members covered in the newspaper field. There was practically no difference between day and night workers with regard to percentages affected by changes in wage scales.

More than half the quotations for each of the respective newspaper trades, except photoengravers, showed increased rate scales. Over 75 percent of all the members covered in each of the following trades had their hourly rates raised during the year: Hand compositors, both day workers and night workers; machine operators, both day and night; and machine tenders, both day and night. The greatest percentage of members in any one classification receiving increases was 83.1 for machine tenders engaged in night work. Day and night photoengravers and night pressmen were the only groups in which less than 50 percent of the members had wage-rate increases.

No decreases were reported for compositors, machine operators, or machine tenders. Of the 55 comparable quotations for stereotypers

engaged in night work, only one (San Francisco, Calif.) showed a decrease in wage rate, but it covered 5.8 percent of the total members in this classification.

TABLE 3.—*Number of Changes in Union Wage-Rate Quotations and Percent of Members Affected, May 15, 1937, as Compared With May 15, 1936*

Trade	Number of quotations comparable with 1936	Number of quotations showing—			Percent of members affected by—		
		Increase	Decrease	No change	Increase	Decrease	No change
Book and job	816	428	8	380	61.9	0.2	37.9
Bindery women	44	23	.....	21	38.2	.....	61.8
Bookbinders	77	56	.....	21	74.2	.....	25.8
Compositors, hand	70	35	.....	35	73.2	.....	26.8
Electrotypers	51	22	.....	29	36.5	.....	63.5
Machine operators	71	35	.....	36	80.8	.....	19.2
Machine tenders (machinists)	39	25	.....	14	81.8	.....	18.2
Photoengravers	55	17	.....	38	24.5	.....	75.5
Press assistants and feeders	137	68	2	67	55.9	.1	44.0
Pressmen, cylinder	159	88	3	68	68.5	.8	30.7
Pressmen, platen	113	59	3	51	77.0	1.4	21.6
Newspaper	903	564	9	330	66.9	.6	32.5
Day work	483	305	5	173	66.9	.5	32.6
Night work	420	259	4	157	66.9	.7	32.4
Compositors, hand:							
Day work	83	54	.....	29	76.7	.....	23.3
Night work	74	48	.....	26	78.7	.....	21.3
Machine operators:							
Day work	91	53	.....	38	75.0	.....	25.0
Night work	80	47	.....	33	78.5	.....	21.5
Machine tenders (machinists):							
Day work	72	48	.....	24	73.7	.....	26.3
Night work	62	42	.....	20	83.1	.....	16.9
Photoengravers:							
Day work	40	17	2	21	34.9	2.3	62.8
Night work	36	18	1	17	40.9	.6	58.5
Pressmen, web:							
Day work	130	88	2	40	52.5	1.0	46.5
Night work	113	72	2	39	36.9	.9	62.2
Stereotypers:							
Day work	67	45	1	21	65.5	1.7	32.8
Night work	55	32	1	22	66.6	5.8	27.6

Hours.—Changes in hours per full-time week were relatively few between 1936 and 1937. Eighty-nine percent of the comparable quotations for all printing trades reported no changes during the year. For the combined printing trades, 1,529 quotations, covering 93.2 percent of the membership, showed no change; 164 quotations, covering 5.1 percent of the membership, showed decreases; and 26 quotations, covering 1.7 percent of the membership, showed increases.

In the book and job trades, 68 of the 816 quotations comparable with 1936 indicated decreases in hours. These covered 2.9 percent of the total members. One report which showed longer hours in 1937 than in 1936, affected less than 0.1 percent of the total book and job members. As in 1936, photoengravers had the largest proportion of members with decreases in hours (8.3 percent). Seven percent of the bindery women had decreased hours. In no other trade were as many as 5 percent of the members affected by reduction in hours.

Although a much greater percentage of members in the newspaper field was affected by changes in full-time hours per week, the direction of the movement was less pronounced. Decreases in hours were reported for 8.9 percent of all newspaper members covered and increases for 4.5 percent. Day workers generally were affected more by changes in hours than were night workers, 10.7 percent of their members having decreases and 4.1 increases, as compared with 6.8 and 5.0 respectively for those on night shifts. The largest percentages of day workers receiving decreases were pressmen (16.1 percent), stereotypers (13.7 percent), and photoengravers (11.1 percent). Among the night workers, 21.2 percent of the photoengravers and 11.6 percent of the stereotypers had their hours reduced during the year.

Every newspaper trade covered had some members with increased hours. The largest percentages of members with increased hours among the day workers were among the pressmen, 6.2 percent, and the typographical trades—machine tenders, 4.7 percent, machine operators, 4.4 percent, and hand compositors, 4.0 percent. The typographical trades showed the greatest percentages of night workers having longer hours in 1937 than in 1936—machine tenders, 9.7 percent, machine operators, 7.3 percent, and hand compositors, 6.2 percent.

TABLE 4.—*Number of Changes in Union Hour Quotations and Percent of Members Affected May 15, 1937, as Compared With May 15, 1936*

Trade	Number of quotations comparable with 1936	Number of quotations showing—			Percent of members affected by—		
		Increase	Decrease	No change	Increase	Decrease	No change
Book and job	816	1	68	747	(1)	3.0	97.0
Bindery women	44		5	39		7.0	93.0
Bookbinders	77	1	4	72	0.4	1.5	98.1
Compositors, hand	70		4	66		.7	99.3
Electrotypers	51		7	44		2.5	97.5
Machine operators	71		4	67		.9	99.1
Machine tenders (machinists)	39		1	38		.5	99.5
Photoengravers	55		9	46		8.3	91.7
Press assistants and feeders	137		12	125		2.4	97.6
Pressman, cylinder	159		11	148		3.1	96.9
Pressmen, platen	113		11	102		4.3	95.7
Newspaper	903	25	96	782	4.5	8.9	86.6
Day work	483	11	51	421	4.1	10.7	85.2
Night work	420	14	45	361	5.0	6.8	88.2
Compositors, hand:							
Day work	83	1	5	77	4.0	7.5	88.5
Night work	74	2	5	67	6.2	4.8	89.0
Machine operators:							
Day work	91	1	9	81	4.4	8.6	87.0
Night work	80	2	7	71	7.3	5.2	87.5
Machine tenders (machinists):							
Day work	72	1	4	67	4.7	4.7	90.6
Night work	62	3	4	55	9.7	4.2	86.1
Photoengravers:							
Day work	40	2	5	33	.7	11.1	88.2
Night work	36	1	8	27	.4	21.2	78.4
Pressmen, web:							
Day work	130	4	13	113	6.2	16.1	77.7
Night work	113	4	13	96	2.2	6.8	91.0
Stereotypers:							
Day work	67	2	15	50	.7	13.7	85.6
Night work	55	2	8	45	.7	11.6	87.7

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

Union Wage Rates, 1937

The average hourly wage rate for all the printing-trades members in the cities covered was $1.177 on May 15, 1937. The average for all those in the book and job trades was $1.108 and for newspaper workers $1.305. (See table 5.)

Certain anomalies enter into a comparison of average rates between 2 years, when such averages reflect not only the actual rates provided for in the agreements, but the number of union members for that year, in each local union covered by the reported rates. By and large it would be expected that a general increase in actual rates would be accompanied by a corresponding increase in the average rate paid to union members, but if union membership increases most (or decreases least) in the lower-paid crafts or in areas with less-than-average rates, the change in the average of the rates paid to all union members may not increase correspondingly or may even show a decrease. Conversely, the average rate may increase in spite of a downward swing in actual rates, if union membership declines sufficiently in the lower-paid crafts or in areas where lower-than-average rates are paid.

The effect of such changes in union membership is revealed in a comparison of the indexes and averages for the years 1936 and 1937 in the book and job trades. As a result of the substantial increases in union membership under effective scales in 1937, particularly in the lower-paid crafts and areas in book and job work, the index of wage rates increased 3.1 percent, whereas the average rates showed an increase of only 0.014 cents per hour, or 1.3 percent over the average for 1936. Changes in membership were not so marked in the newspaper trades, the index increasing 3.8 percent, the average 3.7 percent.

Because the averages do not accurately reflect changes from year to year, no table comparing 1936 and 1937 averages is included in this report. For the trends of actual union rates, the tables of indexes (tables 1 and 2) should be consulted. These tables are so computed as to eliminate the effect of fluctuating memberships at various rates.[3]

The lower average for the book and job group is largely due to the rates of bindery women, press assistants and feeders, and bookbinders. These occupations showed the lowest averages of all the trades, and their membership comprised approximately 32 percent of the total for all book and job trades. Another factor making for a higher average in the newspaper trades is that the night rates paid in these trades are generally substantially higher than the day rates. These factors do not account for all of the difference, however, since average newspaper day rates for hand and machine compositors and

[3] For a fuller discussion, see Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 631: Union Scales of Wages and Hours in the Printing Trades, May 15, 1936 (pp. 3, 4, 6).

machine tenders were higher than the rates for the same trades in book and job work. Among photoengravers the reverse was true.

Among the book and job trades the photoengravers, with an average rate of $1.529, were the highest paid. Electrotypers averaged $1.336, machine tenders $1.245, and machine operators $1.236. Bindery women, with an average rate of $0.521, and press assistants and feeders, with an average of $0.895, were the only trades showing average rates under $1.00.

In the newspaper industry the average hourly rate for night work was $1.384; for day work it was $1.238. Photoengravers, as in the book and job section, were the highest paid, with an average of $1.573 per hour. Photoengravers working nights averaged $1.708; those on day shifts averaged $1.450. Day pressmen and stereotypers had the lowest average of all the occupations covered, about $1.12 an hour.

Distribution of Union Members by Wage Rates

Table 5 shows the distribution of the union members in the printing trades, in the cities covered, according to their rates per hour on May 15, 1937. Very few members were reported as having rates as low as $0.364 per hour, while some were receiving as much as $2.667. Over two-thirds of all the workers covered had rates between $1.00 and $1.50 per hour, and about three-fourths between $0.90 and $1.50 per hour. About one-half of the total members had rates of $1.20 per hour or higher. Only one-fifth were working at hourly rates of less than $1.00.

In the book and job industry, rates ranged from $0.364 per hour to $2.00 per hour, with the greatest concentration, 23.8 percent, falling between $1.30 and $1.40. Nearly three-fourths of the total members had rates between $0.80 and $1.40 per hour. The median for all book and job members lay between $1.10 and $1.20. Rates of $1.00 or more per hour were in effect for 70.7 percent of the book and job members.

The range and concentration points for the separate book and job trades varied considerably. All of the bindery women were reported as having rates under $0.70 per hour, with over one-third below $0.50. Rates for press assistants and feeders ranged from $0.364 to $1.267, with more than 70 percent having rates under $1.00. Platen pressmen and bookbinders reported rates of less than $1.00 per hour for 48.1 and 38.6 percent of their members, respectively. None of the other trades showed any significant percentage of their membership working for less than $1.00 per hour.

In the newspaper trades the greatest concentration (19.4 percent) came between $1.20 and $1.30 per hour. For the entire group the range was from $0.694 to $2.667. Only 4 percent of the total mem-

TABLE 5.—*Percentage Distribution of Union Members in the Printing Trades, by Hourly Rates, May 15, 1937*

Trade	Average rate per hour	Percent of union members whose rates (in cents) per hour were—									
		35 and under 40	40 and under 45	45 and under 50	50 and under 55	55 and under 60	60 and under 70	70 and under 80	80 and under 90	90 and under 100	100 and under 110
All printing trades	$1.177	(1)	0.8	1.5	2.4	1.5	1.6	1.3	3.7	7.6	15.5
Book and job	1.108	(1)	1.2	2.3	3.7	2.4	2.4	2.0	5.4	9.9	17.1
Bindery women	.521	.2	11.6	22.4	34.2	20.3	11.2				
Bookbinders	1.029						.6	.8	3.9	33.3	33.2
Compositors, hand	1.158								3.0	5.1	35.0
Electrotypers	1.336								.1	3.1	8.4
Machine operators	1.236								1.2	3.5	18.8
Machine tenders (machinists)	1.245								.6	2.7	15.7
Photoengravers	1.529										.3
Press assistants and feeders	.895	.1	.4	1.1	3.0	2.8	8.9	11.0	20.6	24.9	5.2
Pressmen, cylinder	1.217							(1)	3.2	7.2	21.8
Pressmen, platen	1.033						1.1	8.9	21.7	16.4	7.5
Newspaper	1.305						(1)	.1	.5	3.4	12.4
Day work	1.238						.1	.2	.8	4.4	16.8
Night work	1.384								.3	2.2	7.1
Compositors, hand	1.334										
Day work	1.284								.6	2.3	13.6
Night work	1.386									1.9	4.2
Machine operators	1.337										
Day work	1.294								.7	2.3	12.3
Night work	1.385									1.8	5.1
Machine tenders (machinists)	1.328										
Day work	1.282								.2	1.4	14.2
Night work	1.386									1.2	6.3
Photoengravers:	1.573										
Day work	1.450								.5		
Night work	1.708								1.8		
Pressmen, web presses	1.205										
Day work	1.120						.3	.6	.8	10.4	22.2
Night work	1.320								.4	3.6	12.0
Stereotypers	1.187										
Day work	1.121							.8	1.4	5.4	33.5
Night work	1.293								.9	3.9	18.8

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

bership had rates of less than $1.00 per hour. Over half (52.1 percent) of the members had rates between $1.10 and $1.40. The median rate for the industry was slightly under $1.30 per hour. The largest group of day workers (23.3 percent) received between $1.10 and $1.20 an hour. The night workers' modal rate was considerably higher, with 22.8 percent of the members receiving between $1.50 and $1.60 per hour.

In the various newspaper printing trades the only significant proportions of members with rates under $1.00 per hour were for the day pressmen (12.1 percent) and the day stereotypers (7.6 percent). Almost 78 percent of the night photoengravers received rates of over $1.60, and 36.5 percent received between $2.00 and $2.10 per hour. About 25 percent of the day photoengravers and an equal proportion of night machine tenders received rates of over $1.60 per hour.

TABLE 5.—*Percentage Distribution of Union Members in the Printing Trades, by Hourly Rates, May 15, 1937*—Continued

Trade	Percent of union members whose rates (in cents) per hour were—										
	110 and under 120	120 and under 130	130 and under 140	140 and under 150	150 and under 160	160 and under 170	170 and under 180	180 and under 190	190 and under 200	200 and under 210	220 and over[2]
All printing trades	13.7	10.9	20.7	7.5	6.5	1.3	2.9	(1)	0.4	0.2	(1)
Book and job	11.3	6.4	23.8	4.4	4.3	.2	3.2	-----	-----	(1)	-----
Bindery women	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Bookbinders	21.6	6.6	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Compositors, hand	13.1	5.9	37.7	.2	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Electrotypers	13.5	14.7	4.5	12.3	43.4	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Machine operators	9.6	7.0	59.6	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	.3	-----
Machine tenders (machinists)	12.3	16.2	43.5	9.0	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Photoengravers	-----	5.1	18.3	26.5	15.6	.6	33.6	-----	-----	-----	-----
Press assistants and feeders	18.9	3.1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Pressmen, cylinder	9.9	7.1	39.3	7.6	3.1	.7	.1	-----	-----	-----	-----
Pressmen, platen	16.2	17.7	10.5	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Newspaper	17.9	19.4	14.8	13.2	10.8	3.4	2.4	(1)	1.2	.4	0.1
Day work	23.3	19.6	13.9	18.0	.7	1.4	-----	-----	.2	.6	-----
Night work	11.6	18.9	15.9	7.4	22.8	5.7	5.4	(1)	2.3	.1	.3
Compositors, hand:											
Day work	17.1	17.9	18.4	29.5	(1)	-----	-----	-----	.2	.4	-----
Night work	10.0	22.4	18.1	8.9	20.4	7.5	6.3	-----	-----	.1	.2
Machine operators:											
Day work	14.3	20.8	20.8	26.1	.4	-----	-----	-----	.6	1.7	-----
Night work	8.7	20.2	24.9	9.4	21.0	1.5	6.3	-----	-----	.2	.9
Machine tenders (machinists):											
Day work	18.7	19.0	20.4	13.5	10.7	-----	-----	-----	.2	1.7	-----
Night work	8.2	19.9	21.7	7.9	9.7	22.7	2.4	-----	-----	-----	-----
Photoengravers:											
Day work	1.0	9.9	34.7	25.3	3.5	25.1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Night work	-----	.6	5.1	5.7	9.0	35.9	5.4	-----	-----	36.5	-----
Pressmen, web presses:											
Day work	42.2	19.4	1.6	2.3	.2	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Night work	16.4	21.2	7.4	2.3	31.7	-----	4.9	.1	-----	-----	-----
Stereotypers:											
Day work	32.0	26.3	-----	-----	.6	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Night work	25.5	7.9	4.1	9.4	29.5	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

[2] There were no union members in the group "210 and under 220."

Night Wage-Rate Differentials [4]

On the average, night workers in all the newspaper trades received 12 cents per hour more than day workers at the same occupations in the same city. (See table 6.) For specific trades the average differential ranged from 8.8 cents per hour for machine tenders to 21.7 cents per hour for photoengravers. The 1937 average differentials showed practically no change from 1936.

The actual differentials in 1937 ranged from zero to 66.7 cents, the most frequent being between 6 and 8 cents per hour. The concentration at this point is due to the fact that over half of the night hand and machine operators and over 40 percent of the night machine tenders received from 6 to 8 cents more per hour than comparable workers on the day shift. The most common differential in the other newspaper trades was between 28 and 32 cents per hour. Over 40 per-

[4] Since some cities had no night workers, and are thus excluded from table 6, the average differentials shown in this table are not the same as the differences between the averages for day and night work shown in table 5.

cent of the night photoengravers received this hourly differential. About a third of the night web pressmen and stereotypers also worked under a wage scale calling for a differential of 28 to 32 cents an hour. These trades, however, had the largest proportion of night workers with no differential as well as the largest proportion with differentials of less than 4 cents an hour.

TABLE 6.—*Differentials Between Day and Night Wage Rates in Newspaper Printing, by Trades, May 15, 1937*

Trade or occupation	Average differential per hour	Percent of night workers whose wage-rate differentials (in cents), in comparison to day work, were—												
		0	Up to 4	4 and under 6	6 and under 8	8 and under 10	10 and under 12	12 and under 14	14 and under 16	16 and under 20	20 and under 24	24 and under 28	28 and under 32	32 and over
All newspaper trades	$0.120	3.0	2.0	6.2	39.3	6.7	7.7	9.1	5.0	2.8	1.7	4.1	12.0	0.4
Compositors, hand	.092	.4	-----	8.1	54.6	9.4	8.3	8.5	4.0	-----	-----	6.5	-----	.2
Machine operators	.094	.6	-----	8.0	57.5	8.1	8.4	5.8	4.3	-----	-----	6.4	-----	.9
Machine tenders (machinists)	.088	1.8	-----	10.2	41.5	6.2	29.5	4.9	3.4	-----	-----	-----	2.5	-----
Photoengravers	.217	.6	1.9	2.2	1.0	2.7	3.8	14.8	-----	16.4	16.4	-----	40.0	.2
Pressmen, web presses	.164	8.7	4.5	2.2	9.6	2.6	6.1	12.9	10.5	8.6	.6	.3	33.4	-----
Stereotypers	.156	9.4	11.5	4.1	15.9	4.0	3.5	11.1	2.3	-----	7.0	-----	30.2	1.0

Hours per Week

Average full-time hours per week under union scales, for all the printing trades combined, were 39.5. Book and job trades scales averaged 39.9 hours. For all newspaper trades the average scale was 38.7. (See table 7.)

The lowest average full-time week among book and job trades was 37.8 hours reported for photoengravers. Electrotypers (38.9), machine operators (39.9), and machine tenders (39.7) all averaged under 40 hours. Hand compositors' scales averaged 40 hours. Bookbinders (40.8) and bindery women (40.7) had the longest average scales of hours in the book and job group, while the three press trades each had an average full-time week of 40.1.

Full-time hours per week for night workers in the newspaper trades averaged 37.9 hours per week as compared with 39.3 for day workers. The typographical trades reported the shortest average full-time weeks, with averages of less than 38 hours. The shortest average full-time week for any occupation was 37.3 hours for night machine operators. Stereotypers had the highest average-hours scale of any printing trade. The largest average differentials between day and night hours scales were reported by the stereotypers (3.2 hours) and the web pressmen (3.1 hours). Hours differentials were small in the typographical trades.

Distribution of Union Members by Scales of Hours

The distribution of members in the printing trades according to union full-time hours per week is shown in table 7. Over 61 percent of all the members were working under a scale of 40 hours per week. Twenty percent were on a 37½-hour basis. About the same proportion (slightly over 8 percent) had a workweek in excess of 40 hours as had a week of less than 37½ hours.

In the book and job industry 83.1 percent of the members were on a 40-hour basis. Ten percent of the members had workweeks of less than 40 hours. Forty-four hours constituted a full week's work for 6.9 percent. No scales over 44 hours were reported for book and job trades in the cities covered by the study.

More than 75 percent of the members in each book and job trade except electrotypers (51.2 percent) and photoengravers (32.2 percent) were reported as being on a 40-hour-week basis. The electrotypers show two widely divergent minor concentration points, with 25 percent of the members working less than 35 hours per week and 23.3 percent on a 44-hour basis. The photoengravers' membership was almost equally distributed under weekly scales of 40, 37½, and 35 to 37½ hours. The only other trades with a considerable proportion of the membership working on other than 40-hour scales were bindery women and bookbinders, each of which had slightly over 20 percent of its members working on a 44-hour-week basis.

In the newspaper industry the distribution by hour scales covers a wider range and shows a somewhat less definite modal tendency than in the book and job section. The greatest concentration point is at 37½ hours, with 47.2 percent of the total members having this scale. A secondary concentration shows 22.9 percent of the total members on a 40-hour basis. Over 12 percent had a workweek of more than 40 hours, with 4.9 percent, consisting of pressmen and stereotypers, reported as having a 48-hour workweek. A full-time week of less than 37½ hours was reported for 14.5 percent of the newspaper workers.

Reports for both day and night workers covered the same range of weekly hours. However, a greater proportion of night workers had scales of 37½ or less hours per week. Of the day workers, 43.6 percent had a week of 37½ hours and 29.0 percent 40 hours. Nine percent had hour scales of less than 37½ and 14.6 percent over 40 hours, with 8.1 percent on a 48-hour-week basis. Over half (51.4 percent) of the night workers had scales of 37½ hours and 15.5 percent 40 hours per week. Weekly hours of more than 40 were reported for 10.3 percent of the night workers, only 1.5 percent exceeding 44 hours. Scales of less than 37½ hours per week were in effect for 21.1 percent of the night-shift members.

TABLE 7.—*Percentage Distribution of Members in Printing Trades by Hour Scales, May 15, 1937*

Trade	Average hours per week	Percent of members whose hours per week were—									
		Under 35	35	Over 35 and under 37½	37½	Over 37½ and under 40	40	Over 40 and under 44	44	Over 44 and under 48	48
All printing trades	39.5	1.3	2.9	4.0	20.3	1.0	61.6	2.0	4.5	0.7	1.7
Book and job	39.9	1.3	.1	3.2	5.4	(1)	83.1	-----	6.9	-----	-----
Bindery women	40.7	-----	-----	-----	3.0	(1)	76.5	-----	20.5	-----	-----
Bookbinders	40.8	-----	.2	-----	2.8	.1	75.8	-----	21.1	-----	-----
Compositors, hand	40.0	-----	-----	-----	2.7	-----	95.7	-----	1.6	-----	-----
Electrotypers	38.9	25.0	-----	-----	-----	.5	51.2	-----	23.3	-----	-----
Machine operators	39.9	-----	.6	.3	2.0	-----	96.2	-----	.9	-----	-----
Machine tenders (machinists)	39.7	-----	-----	-----	11.8	-----	88.2	-----	-----	-----	-----
Photoengravers	37.8	-----	-----	33.5	33.7	.1	32.2	-----	.5	-----	-----
Press assistants and feeders	40.1	-----	-----	-----	2.1	-----	94.6	-----	3.3	-----	-----
Pressmen, cylinder	40.1	-----	-----	-----	2.1	-----	94.7	-----	3.2	-----	-----
Pressmen, platen	40.1	-----	-----	-----	4.1	-----	89.7	-----	6.2	-----	-----
Newspaper:	38.7	1.2	8.0	5.3	47.2	2.8	22.9	5.5	.3	1.9	4.9
Day work	39.3	1.4	3.8	3.8	43.6	3.8	29.0	2.9	.4	3.2	8.1
Night work	37.9	1.0	13.1	7.0	51.4	1.7	15.5	8.7	.1	.4	1.1
Compositors, hand:											
Day work	37.8	.9	5.0	5.0	62.2	7.7	19.1	.1	-----	-----	-----
Night work	37.5	.3	12.2	3.6	66.5	2.0	15.3	-----	-----	-----	-----
Machine operators:											
Day work	37.5	3.7	7.9	7.5	57.6	4.7	18.4	.2	-----	-----	-----
Night work	37.3	3.0	12.7	6.2	60.9	2.0	15.2	-----	-----	-----	-----
Machine tenders (machinists):											
Day work	37.7	2.4	5.9	4.3	62.8	6.6	18.0	-----	-----	-----	-----
Night work	37.6	.3	8.8	3.6	70.4	1.8	14.8	-----	-----	-----	-----
Photoengravers:											
Day work	39.9	-----	-----	.3	10.8	.5	82.4	1.7	4.3	-----	-----
Night work	38.3	-----	1.9	.2	64.5	2.3	28.9	1.5	.7	-----	-----
Pressmen, web:											
Day work	41.8	-----	-----	-----	24.7	-----	35.8	9.3	-----	7.2	23.0
Night work	38.7	-----	22.7	15.2	9.5	.4	11.3	38.0	-----	1.2	1.7
Stereotypers:											
Day work	42.5	-----	-----	.6	11.2	-----	43.8	4.5	1.7	14.1	24.1
Night work	39.3	-----	2.9	9.1	47.7	2.5	18.0	9.0	.3	1.2	9.3

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

Among the individual newspaper trades the concentration points varied considerably. The typographical trades each had the majority of its members on 37½-hour scales but had a considerable number on a 40-hour basis. None of these reported any scales as high as 44 hours. Photoengravers had 82.4 percent of their day-shift members on 40-hour scales, but 64.5 percent of their night workers were on a 37½-hour week. Only pressmen and stereotypers reported scales of more than 44 hours. Day-working pressmen reported 35.8 percent of their members at 40 hours, 24.7 percent at 37½ hours, and 23.0 percent at 48 hours. On the night shift, 38 percent of the pressmen were on a 40-to-44-hour week (42 in most instances), 22.7 percent 35 hours, 15.2 percent between 35 and 37½ hours (36 in most instances), and 11.3 percent 40 hours. Day stereotypers showed 43.8 percent of their members on a 40-hour week and 24.1 percent 48 hours. Of the stereotypers on the night shift, 47.7 percent had a scale of 37½ hours and 18 percent were reported at 40 hours. Nearly 10 percent were working under a 48-hour scale.

Union Membership and Kind of Agreement in Cities Covered

The reports from the union officials indicated that in the printing trades the written form of agreement decidedly predominates. Only 132 of the 1,847 quotations of wage and hour scales received were reported as being based on oral agreements. The number of written and oral agreements in the cities surveyed and the percent of members covered was as follows:

TABLE 8.—*Written and Oral Agreements and Membership Covered, 1937*

Trade	Number of quotations showing—		Percent of members under—	
	Written agreements	Oral agreements	Written agreements	Oral agreements
All printing trades	1,715	132	96.7	3.3
Book and job	845	83	95.6	4.4
Newspaper	870	49	98.6	1.4
Day work	460	30	98.7	1.3
Night work	410	19	98.6	1.4

The total union members covered by the union agreements included in these annual surveys indicates the varying strength of organized labor in the printing trades in the cities covered, as well as the amount of activity and employment in the industry. The 1937 survey covered a total of 89,389 members, an increase of 11.9 percent over 1936. Most of this gain was recorded among the book and job trades, which reported an increase of 15.3 percent in members under effective union scales between 1936 and 1937. Part of this increase was among members employed on magazines, who were included with the book and job groups. Membership under effective scales in newspaper work increased 6.2 percent during the year.

TABLE 9.—*Members Covered Under Union Agreements in Printing Trades in 70 Cities* [1]

Year	Total	Book and job	Newspaper
1927	85,056	57,826	27,230
1928	87,477	59,304	28,173
1929	90,500	60,659	29,841
1930	90,005	61,953	28,052
1931	85,857	56,954	28,903
1932	85,854	59,123	26,731
1933	76,774	49,760	27,014
1934	78,253	49,326	28,927
1935	79,224	49,913	29,311
1936	79,865	49,930	29,935
1937	89,389	57,594	31,795

[1] The study covered 66 cities in 1927. Madison, Wis., was added in 1928. In 1934, Bridgeport, Conn. Fall River, Mass., and Muskegon and Saginaw, Mich., were dropped and the following cities added: Duluth, Minn., Charleston, W. Va., El Paso and San Antonio, Tex., South Bend, Ind., Charlotte, N. C., and Oklahoma City, Okla. Thus the later figures are not exactly comparable with the earlier figures. Since the last cities added had relatively fewer union members than the other cities covered, the resulting noncomparability is slight.

Total union membership under effective agreements in the cities covered by the study reached a peak of 90,500 in 1929. This year was the high point for union membership in the newspaper

trades, but book and job membership under effective agreements recorded a further rise in 1930 while newspaper membership began to fall. Union membership under effective agreements in newspaper work recovered somewhat in 1931, but fell again in 1932 to a low point which was 10.4 percent below the 1929 figure. Since 1932 there has been a steady increase, the membership passing the 1929 figure in 1936. The number of members under effective agreements on May 15, 1937, was 6.5 percent above the 1929 figure.

In book and job work, union membership under effective agreements in the cities covered fell about 8 percent in 1931, recovered somewhat in 1932, then fell again in the next 2 years, reaching, in 1934, a low point 20.4 percent below the peak figure for 1930. Only small increases were made until 1937, when an increase of 15.3 percent brought the number of members under effective agreements to about 93 percent of that for 1930.

Examination of the membership figures for the individual trades indicates that the largest relative gains during the year were reported by machine operators (47.0 percent), bindery women (33.1 percent), and platen pressmen (31.9 percent), in the book and job section. Machine operators also showed the greatest relative increase (13.3 percent) among newspaper trades.

WAGES OF INDIAN SEAMEN

THE MONTHLY wages of boatswains or skippers on East Indian Peninsula and Oriental Lines ranged from 55 to 80 rupees,[1] of first officers from 40 to 51 rupees, and of sailors from 22 to 32 rupees, according to a report[2] by the International Transport Workers' Federation and the International Mercantile Officers' Association, from which the following data are taken:

Monthly Wages of Indian Seamen August 1937

[Average exchange rate of rupee, first half of 1937=37.1 cents]

Occupation	Peninsula and Oriental Lines		City Hall, Anchor, and other lines	
	Coasting	Home	Coasting	Home
Deck:	*Rs.*	*Rs.*	*Rs.*	*Rs.*
Serang (boatswain or skipper)	55	80	55	65
First tindel (officer)	40	51	40	46
Lascar (sailor)	22	22–32	18–26	22–30
Lascar boy (sailor boy)	11	14	13	15
Carpenter	----------	----------	75	120
Engine room:				
Donkeyman	----------	----------	30	35
Fireman	25	----------	25	27
Trimmer	18	----------	18	21
Saloon:				
Ship's cook	60	55–60	60	70
Baker	60	----------	60	70
Messroom boy	27	25–50	25	30
Scullion	20	30	20	22½

[1] Average exchange rate of rupee in first half of 1937=37.1 cents.

[2] International Transport Workers' Federation and International Mercantile Officers' Association. Joint press report. Antwerp, Aug 30, 1937.

Employment Offices

OPERATIONS OF U. S. EMPLOYMENT SERVICE, OCTOBER 1937

OFFICES of the United States Employment Service made 303,286 placements during the month of October, 210,240 of which were with private employers. During the month 291,187 new applicants were registered by the offices and on October 31, 4,393,092 persons were actively seeking work through the public placement facilities.

The volume of private placements reported for October represents a gain of 21.2 percent above the number reported in October 1936 and 79.6 percent over the volume for October 1935. Private placements, however, were 12.3 percent fewer than the number of such placements in September. The uncertainty felt in certain lines of business activity evidently is reflected in this decline, since in each of the preceding 3 years increases were reported from September to October. Private placements included 133,049 placements of men and 77,191 placements of women. The placements of men with private employers declined only 11.1 percent, whereas the placements of women were 14.2 percent lower in October than in the preceding month.

In addition to the private placements, employment offices made 90,371 placements in prevailing-wage public employment. This includes placements on public works and with regular governmental units, Federal, State, or local. Assignments on relief-work projects through the employment offices numbered only 2,675 during October.

Declines in private employment were general throughout the country. Every geographical region showed a drop, the greatest being reported in the East South Central area in which private placements declined 20 percent. Smallest declines were reported for the Mountain States region with a drop of 4.5 percent. The declines in the West North Central and West South Central States were also well below the general average. Declines were found in all but eight States.

The 291,187 new applications registered by the Service during October included those of 197,755 men and 93,432 women. As in previous years, the number of new applications increased above the level reported in September, the gain for men being 4.0 percent and for women 5.3 percent.

At the end of October there were 3,386,570 men and 1,006,522 women actively seeking work through the offices of the United States Employment Service.

Activities of the Employment Service for veterans showed the same general trends as for nonveterans, although the relative declines in placements were smaller. Activities for veterans are summarized in the table below.

Tabulations of the detailed records of placement activities during the month of September have recently been completed, providing information amplifying that published in the last issue of the Monthly Labor Review. These tabulations indicate that 18.5 percent of the 239,605 private placements in September were of registrants 20 years of age or less, 61.8 percent were of applicants between 21 and 45 years of age, and 19.7 percent were of registrants 45 years of age or over. During September private placements were equal to 69.2 percent of the 346,048 placements of all types made during the month.

The largest field of activity in which persons were placed during September was in building and construction. Private and public building and construction activities combined accounted for 30.4 percent of all placements, both private and public, during the month. The second largest field of placement activity was in the domestic and personal service and amusement category, which accounted for 22.5 percent of the placements. Agriculture, forestry, and fishing was third with 20 percent of the placements. Manufacturing and mining, fourth, absorbed 10.4 percent of the placements. Governmental service took only 0.9 percent of the placements, while work-relief projects took 4.2 percent of the total placements for the month.

Jobs in the so-called "white-collar" occupations numbered 8.6 percent of all private placements in September. Placements in service occupations numbered 32.5 percent of the private placements, while jobs in craftsman and production occupations took 16.6 percent of the placements. Physical-labor jobs numbered 42.3 percent of the private total.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Operations of United States Employment Service, October 1937*

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		September 1937	October 1936	October 1935
New applications	291,187	+4.4	−18.5	−55.7
Total placements	303,286	−12.4	−24.0	−46.0
Private	210,240	−12.3	+21.2	+79.6
Public	90,371	−13.1	−53.4	−31.8
Relief	2,675	+7.4	−91.6	−99.2
Active file	4,393,092	−5.3	−36.3	−50.1

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Veterans' Activities, October 1937*

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		September 1937	October 1936	October 1935
New applications	9,478	+8.3	−36.7	−67.7
Total placements	16,816	−10.0	−37.2	−63.9
Private	9,897	−7.5	+15.3	+38.7
Public	6,677	−13.4	−58.7	−62.5
Relief	242	−11.0	−87.9	−98.9
Active file	237,426	−3.1	−37.2	−54.8

TABLE 3.—*Operations of United States Employment Service, October 1937*

TOTAL

Division and State	Placements							New applications		Active file	
		Private				Public					
	Total[1]	Number	Percent of change from September	Regular (over 1 month)	Temporary (1 month or less)	Number	Percent of change from September	Number	Percent of change from September	Oct. 31	Percent of change from Sept. 30
United States	303,286	210,240	−12.3	87,444	122,796	90,371	−13.1	291,187	+4.4	4,393,092	−5.3
New England	10,955	6,634	−17.5	3,514	3,120	4,289	+.1	19,079	+14.3	367,972	−4.5
Maine	1,367	128	−5.9	89	39	1,239	+4.8	1,171	−12.2	15,846	−1.3
New Hampshire	1,348	767	−17.2	476	291	569	+38.4	1,379	+34.4	16,251	−5.3
Vermont	1,203	624	−39.9	273	351	579	+47.3	843	+1.7	6,266	+10.0
Massachusetts	2,757	1,830	−19.8	985	845	920	−27.2	8,192	+18.1	248,163	−4.5
Rhode Island	951	710	−23.6	411	299	236	+15.1	2,256	+32.5	35,730	−2.8
Connecticut	3,329	2,575	−5.6	1,280	1,295	746	−10.2	5,238	+7.5	45,716	−8.2
Middle Atlantic	40,439	29,452	−15.8	14,180	15,272	10,130	−25.6	53,232	+12.9	1,075,326	−8.9
New York	23,729	18,427	−15.8	8,117	10,310	5,016	−19.4	25,468	+11.2	274,089	−9.9
New Jersey	4,752	4,260	−10.7	2,221	2,039	490	−38.6	9,256	+29.5	166,504	+3.3
Pennsylvania	11,958	6,765	−18.6	3,842	2,923	4,624	−29.8	18,508	+8.2	634,733	−11.3
East North Central	59,864	45,837	−15.3	20,770	25,067	13,014	−3.3	65,264	+5.9	856,801	−1.9
Ohio	16,108	11,722	−24.6	4,709	7,013	3,903	−20.8	15,403	−2.6	247,734	−5.2
Indiana	5,092	4,460	−23.5	2,854	1,606	626	−37.3	9,578	+4.7	102,604	+1.3
Illinois	22,719	17,680	−10.7	7,648	10,032	5,006	+74.6	19,261	+13.8	273,232	−2.1
Michigan	8,253	6,372	−6.4	2,918	3,454	1,750	−20.7	9,404	+9.9	124,157	+0
Wisconsin	7,692	5,603	−8.9	2,641	2,962	1,729	−29.8	11,618	+3.8	109,074	+1.5
West North Central	35,456	20,468	−8.9	8,822	11,646	14,582	−16.9	26,333	−.7	474,719	−2.2
Minnesota	8,693	5,819	−3.8	2,644	3,175	2,818	−10.9	5,749	+11.5	107,774	−1.1
Iowa	9,287	5,374	−.5	2,262	3,112	3,596	−17.4	4,612	−4.2	50,925	−2.4
Missouri	5,484	3,408	−11.8	1,756	1,652	2,076	−15.2	7,711	+6.0	154,624	−4.2
North Dakota	2,606	1,968	−35.0	687	1,281	638	−12.5	1,653	−21.1	25,306	+4.0
South Dakota	2,564	709	−14.6	293	416	1,836	−24.1	1,146	−16.7	38,548	+6.7
Nebraska	4,386	1,600	+13.8	652	948	2,779	−11.5	2,928	−5.5	37,383	−6.6
Kansas	2,436	1,590	−16.0	528	1,062	839	−35.2	2,534	−6.3	60,159	−3.4
South Atlantic	37,304	21,244	−14.5	9,141	12,103	15,972	−8.7	32,034	+1.8	460,538	−6.6
Delaware	1,614	1,493	−17.5	253	1,240	118	−62.9	796	−25.6	9,639	−3.6
Maryland	2,863	1,676	+2.9	889	787	1,187	−20.2	3,374	+15.3	36,518	−13.6
District of Columbia	2,265	2,102	−4.1	925	1,177	163	−28.8	2,441	−3.4	26,357	−8.7
Virginia	4,772	2,378	−1.7	1,114	1,264	2,388	−5.6	3,938	+14.5	48,716	+.3
West Virginia	3,675	1,955	−.6	1,062	893	1,706	−1.6	3,269	−18.8	68,806	−4.7
North Carolina	8,692	5,437	−19.9	2,936	2,501	3,255	+8.4	6,763	+6.1	72,315	−6.6
South Carolina	4,460	2,767	−17.7	721	2,046	1,683	−22.9	2,332	+25.7	45,706	−7.8
Georgia	7,626	3,436	−26.6	1,241	2,195	4,190	−3.0	7,715	+1.7	92,300	−9.1
Florida	1,337	0	-----	0	0	1,282	−24.6	1,406	−15.1	60,181	−3.9
East South Central	17,010	7,297	−20.0	3,587	3,710	9,687	−2.3	19,643	+.8	358,987	−10.2
Kentucky	3,939	1,663	−22.8	837	826	2,276	−6.7	3,806	−14.0	111,963	−10.9
Tennessee	4,064	2,050	−15.3	1,369	681	2,014	+5.8	4,259	+7.2	110,545	−12.7
Alabama	4,386	3,396	−23.1	1,241	2,155	968	−2.4	6,345	+7.0	66,192	−4.7
Mississippi	4,621	188	+43.5	140	48	4,429	−3.2	5,233	+1.4	70,287	−9.8
West South Central	45,890	38,885	−6.4	8,079	30,806	6,941	−18.4	29,351	−10.8	368,518	−4.2
Arkansas	3,168	2,619	+2.3	876	1,743	542	−29.4	1,429	−13.2	43,079	−9.8
Louisiana	3,861	3,039	+50.3	2,409	630	801	−2.2	4,754	+9.2	59,766	−8.0
Oklahoma	4,039	2,744	−1.0	643	2,101	1,291	−35.0	2,939	−8.7	87,152	−10.0
Texas	34,822	30,483	−10.8	4,151	26,332	4,307	−12.6	20,229	−14.6	178,521	+1.8
Mountain	21,528	13,542	−4.5	5,494	8,048	7,854	−20.0	12,193	−4.3	138,963	−2.3
Montana	3,161	1,325	+24.3	748	577	1,831	−10.6	1,146	+8.6	22,656	−5.8
Idaho	2,701	1,906	+39.9	916	990	793	−13.8	1,266	+12.5	11,766	−6.7
Wyoming	1,456	666	−7.0	272	394	742	−48.9	702	−21.0	3,720	+10.9
Colorado	5,612	3,696	−5.4	1,316	2,380	1,873	−26.6	4,230	+10.2	45,378	−3.8
New Mexico	2,780	1,861	−43.1	413	1,448	915	+23.8	1,222	−30.4	27,484	−7.7
Arizona	2,184	1,448	−8.1	771	677	709	+1.0	1,789	+9.5	15,181	+.2
Utah	2,864	2,130	+24.9	704	1,426	731	−7.8	1,072	−24.6	9,762	+37.3
Nevada	770	510	−11.0	354	156	260	−57.1	766	−25.0	3,016	−2.3
Pacific	34,840	26,881	−11.3	13,857	13,024	7,902	−15.2	34,058	+12.3	291,268	−.3
Washington	4,664	2,495	−32.8	947	1,548	2,115	−31.8	4,218	−14.4	50,704	−6.9
Oregon	3,340	2,040	−22.6	742	1,298	1,299	−6.1	3,817	+25.4	37,751	−2.7
California	26,836	22,346	−6.7	12,168	10,178	4,488	−7.0	26,023	+16.4	202,813	+2.0

[1] Includes 2,675 security-wage placements made on work-relief projects.

TABLE 3.—*Operations of United States Employment Service, October 1937*—Continued

MEN

Division and State	Placements							New applications		Active file	
		Private				Public					
	Total [1]	Number	Percent of change from September	Regular (over 1 month)	Temporary (1 month or less)	Number	Percent of change from September	Number	Percent of change from September	Oct. 31	Percent of change from Sept. 30
United States	224,986	133,049	−11.1	49,763	83,286	89,499	−13.2	197,755	+4.0	3,386,570	−5.2
New England	7,690	3,436	−20.5	1,812	1,624	4,231	−.2	13,251	+21.2	270,034	−4.7
Maine	1,275	39	−22.0	21	18	1,236	+4.8	941	−12.8	13,815	−.4
New Hampshire	1,073	506	−16.5	304	202	559	+38.7	933	+46.2	12,423	−5.2
Vermont	951	373	−51.4	140	233	578	+47.4	603	−.5	4,860	+8.8
Massachusetts	1,876	958	−21.1	527	431	916	−27.1	5,883	+29.4	180,277	−4.9
Rhode Island	482	258	−33.3	154	104	219	+6.8	1,377	+36.6	24,835	−3.9
Connecticut	2,033	1,302	+.5	666	636	723	−10.0	3,514	+14.9	33,824	−7.3
Middle Atlantic	25,480	14,829	−18.4	7,129	7,700	9,911	−25.9	33,550	+14.8	844,471	−8.4
New York	14,858	9,689	−16.3	3,932	5,757	4,894	−19.9	15,477	+11.2	211,741	−11.2
New Jersey	2,091	1,605	−15.3	1,056	549	485	−38.8	5,967	+34.0	132,127	+2.9
Pennsylvania	8,531	3,535	−24.9	2,141	1,394	4,532	−30.0	12,106	+11.6	500,603	−9.8
East North Central	40,085	26,211	−13.5	10,900	15,311	12,885	−3.5	42,224	+4.7	675,163	−2.0
Ohio	10,799	6,457	−26.2	2,283	4,174	3,863	−21.0	10,593	−3.9	194,763	−4.2
Indiana	2,952	2,337	−18.9	1,335	1,002	609	−38.5	5,825	+.6	83,778	+.8
Illinois	14,940	9,945	−11.1	3,971	5,974	4,975	+75.4	11,816	+12.8	213,508	−2.8
Michigan	6,229	4,361	+3.6	2,017	2,344	1,738	−20.6	6,404	+8.6	99,427	−1.1
Wisconsin	5,165	3,111	−5.2	1,294	1,817	1,700	−30.4	7,586	+6.2	83,687	+1.6
West North Central	27,958	13,069	−8.4	4,647	8,422	14,503	−16.9	16,941	−4.2	377,893	−2.5
Minnesota	6,308	3,456	+3.3	1,427	2,029	2,800	−10.8	3,728	+19.0	83,734	−2.0
Iowa	7,448	3,551	+1.0	1,322	2,229	3,584	−17.5	2,878	−5.7	39,977	−3.2
Missouri	4,026	1,956	−12.3	790	1,166	2,070	−15.4	4,709	+.1	124,148	−5.3
North Dakota	2,103	1,475	−40.5	410	1,065	628	−12.4	1,149	−30.3	19,826	+6.0
South Dakota	2,307	481	−16.8	166	315	1,817	−24.1	694	−21.9	31,606	+7.5
Nebraska	3,808	1,028	+39.7	286	742	2,773	−11.4	2,028	−7.7	30,204	−6.2
Kansas	1,958	1,122	−19.3	246	876	831	−35.4	1,755	−14.6	48,398	−2.3
South Atlantic	28,687	12,734	−11.0	4,555	8,179	15,896	−8.8	23,470	+1.3	334,445	−6.4
Delaware	811	691	−10.8	126	565	117	−63.2	541	−15.2	6,894	−1.6
Maryland	2,302	1,117	+5.0	605	512	1,185	−20.2	2,392	+20.3	29,109	−12.6
District of Columbia	887	726	−14.0	244	482	161	−27.8	1,224	−8.9	17,667	−8.7
Virginia	3,890	1,508	+4.3	661	847	2,379	−5.7	2,604	+3.0	33,768	−1.3
West Virginia	2,741	1,027	+8.8	600	427	1,701	−.8	2,404	−20.9	56,561	−4.4
North Carolina	6,256	3,026	−12.7	1,212	1,814	3,230	+8.1	4,897	+6.5	48,037	−7.8
South Carolina	3,793	2,109	−16.2	474	1,635	1,675	−23.1	1,896	+23.4	32,390	−7.7
Georgia	6,697	2,530	−22.1	633	1,897	4,167	−3.0	6,585	+3.9	66,238	−7.1
Florida	1,310	0	-------	0	0	1,281	−24.6	927	−21.2	43,781	−4.5
East South Central	14,218	4,552	−20.9	2,014	2,538	9,642	−2.2	15,586	+.4	274,611	−9.8
Kentucky	3,076	829	−30.5	353	476	2,247	−7.1	2,392	−22.3	89,292	−10.0
Tennessee	3,002	993	−25.1	636	357	2,009	+5.9	3,031	+10.7	86,767	−12.2
Alabama	3,550	2,571	−17.8	899	1,672	958	−1.1	5,346	+9.5	49,578	−2.8
Mississippi	4,590	159	+48.6	126	33	4,428	−3.2	4,817	−.3	48,974	−11.6
West South Central	34,416	27,495	−7.4	4,635	22,860	6,859	−18.7	19,992	−12.4	280,451	−4.9
Arkansas	2,378	1,833	−2.1	431	1,402	538	−29.5	903	−19.2	34,874	−8.7
Louisiana	2,942	2,132	+88.7	1,707	425	789	−3.5	3,363	+7.7	46,833	−9.9
Oklahoma	2,917	1,662	+4.2	236	1,426	1,252	−36.1	1,967	−16.0	69,889	−10.7
Texas	26,179	21,868	−12.9	2,261	19,607	4,280	−12.6	13,759	−15.3	128,855	+1.8
Mountain	18,613	10,715	+7.0	3,882	6,833	7,791	−20.1	8,787	−.6	111,084	−2.8
Montana	3,005	1,182	+37.8	658	524	1,820	−10.5	897	+14.3	18,374	−7.2
Idaho	2,343	1,553	+57.0	673	880	788	−13.7	933	+12.0	10,039	−7.3
Wyoming	1,264	481	−8.0	193	288	740	−49.0	532	−19.9	2,784	+14.0
Colorado	4,733	2,852	+1.3	818	2,034	1,855	−26.8	2,925	+14.3	34,153	−4.9
New Mexico	2,457	1,559	−37.7	270	1,289	895	+22.8	906	−23.2	22,909	−7.8
Arizona	1,617	884	−13.2	499	385	706	+1.4	1,345	+13.4	12,404	−.4
Utah	2,550	1,818	+116.2	492	1,326	729	−7.4	706	−13.6	8,008	+47.9
Nevada	644	386	−16.6	279	107	258	−57.3	543	−33.9	2,413	−6.3
Pacific	27,839	20,008	−12.0	10,189	9,819	7,781	−15.4	23,954	+10.6	218,418	+.1
Washington	3,835	1,679	−39.3	576	1,103	2,107	−31.6	3,163	−18.1	42,090	−5.9
Oregon	2,887	1,596	−21.7	435	1,161	1,291	−6.0	2,996	+31.3	30,033	−2.2
California	21,117	16,733	−6.7	9,178	7,555	4,383	−7.7	17,795	+14.7	146,295	+2.4

[1] Includes 2,438 security-wage placements on work-relief projects.

TABLE 3.—*Operations of United States Employment Service, October 1937*—Continued

WOMEN

Division and State	Placements					New applications		Active file	
	Total [1]	Private				Number	Percent of change from September	Oct. 31	Percent of change from Sept. 30
		Number	Percent of change from September	Regular (over 1 month)	Temporary (1 month or less)				
United States	78,300	77,191	−14.2	37,681	39,510	93,432	+5.3	1,006,522	−5.5
New England	3,265	3,198	−14.0	1,702	1,496	5,828	+1.1	97,938	−3.9
Maine	92	89	+3.5	68	21	230	−9.4	2,031	−7.0
New Hampshire	275	261	−18.4	172	89	446	+14.9	3,828	−5.5
Vermont	252	251	−7.0	133	118	240	+7.6	1,406	+14.2
Massachusetts	881	872	−18.3	458	414	2,309	−3.4	67,886	−3.4
Rhode Island	469	452	−16.6	257	195	879	+26.7	10,895	−.3
Connecticut	1,296	1,273	−11.2	614	659	1,724	−4.9	11,892	−10.4
Middle Atlantic	14,959	14,623	−12.9	7,051	7,572	19,682	+9.8	230,855	−10.9
New York	8,871	8,738	−15.2	4,185	4,553	9,991	+11.2	62,348	−5.0
New Jersey	2,661	2,655	−7.7	1,165	1,490	3,289	+22.0	34,377	+4.7
Pennsylvania	3,427	3,230	−10.4	1,701	1,529	6,402	+2.4	134,130	−16.5
East North Central	19,779	19,626	−17.6	9,870	9,756	23,040	+8.1	181,638	−1.3
Ohio	5,309	5,265	−22.5	2,426	2,839	4,810	+.3	52,971	−8.5
Indiana	2,140	2,123	−28.0	1,519	604	3,753	+11.7	18,826	+3.8
Illinois	7,779	7,735	−10.1	3,677	4,058	7,445	+15.4	59,724	+.8
Michigan	2,024	2,011	−22.6	901	1,110	3,000	+12.8	24,730	+4.8
Wisconsin	2,527	2,492	−13.2	1,347	1,145	4,032	−.3	25,387	+1.1
West North Central	7,498	7,399	−9.7	4,175	3,224	9,392	+6.3	96,826	−.9
Minnesota	2,385	2,363	−12.6	1,217	1,146	2,021	0	24,040	+2.0
Iowa	1,839	1,823	−3.3	940	883	1,734	−1.6	10,948	+.6
Missouri	1,458	1,452	−11.0	966	486	3,002	+16.6	30,476	+.5
North Dakota	503	493	−10.7	277	216	504	+13.0	5,480	−2.5
South Dakota	257	228	−9.5	127	101	452	+7.0	6,942	+3.1
Nebraska	578	572	−14.6	366	206	900	0	7,179	−8.2
Kansas	478	468	−7.0	282	186	779	+20.4	11,761	−7.7
South Atlantic	8,617	8,510	−19.3	4,586	3,924	8,564	+3.5	126,093	−7.1
Delaware	803	802	−22.4	127	675	255	−41.0	2,745	−8.3
Maryland	561	559	−1.1	284	275	982	+4.7	7,409	−17.4
District of Columbia	1,378	1,376	+2.0	681	695	1,217	+2.9	8,690	−8.7
Virginia	882	870	−10.6	453	417	1,334	+46.4	14,948	+4.3
West Virginia	934	928	−9.3	462	466	865	−12.3	12,245	−5.9
North Carolina	2,436	2,411	−27.4	1,724	687	1,866	+4.8	24,278	−4.3
South Carolina	667	658	−22.2	247	411	436	+36.7	13,316	−8.1
Georgia	929	906	−36.9	608	298	1,130	−9.5	26,062	+13.8
Florida	27	0	-------	0	0	479	−.2	16,400	−2.4
East South Central	2,792	2,745	−18.5	1,573	1,172	4,057	+2.4	84,376	−11.5
Kentucky	863	834	−13.2	484	350	1,414	+4.7	22,671	−14.4
Tennessee	1,062	1,057	−3.6	733	324	1,228	−.6	23,778	−14.8
Alabama	836	825	−35.9	342	483	999	−4.8	16,614	−9.8
Mississippi	31	29	+20.8	14	15	416	+27.2	21,313	−5.5
West South Central	11,474	11,390	−3.8	3,444	7,946	9,359	−7.2	88,067	−2.0
Arkansas	790	786	+14.1	445	341	526	−.8	8,205	−14.3
Louisiana	919	907	+1.7	702	205	1,391	+12.9	12,933	−.3
Oklahoma	1,122	1,082	−8.1	407	675	972	+10.7	17,263	−7.3
Texas	8,643	8,615	−5.1	1,890	6,725	6,470	−13.1	49,666	+1.9
Mountain	2,915	2,827	−32.1	1,612	1,215	3,406	−12.7	27,879	−.6
Montana	156	143	−31.3	90	53	249	−7.8	4,282	+.8
Idaho	358	353	−5.4	243	110	333	+14.0	1,727	−3.0
Wyoming	192	185	−4.1	79	106	170	−24.4	936	+2.7
Colorado	879	844	−22.9	498	346	1,305	+1.9	11,225	−.4
New Mexico	323	302	−60.7	143	159	316	−45.3	4,575	−7.2
Arizona	567	564	+1.4	272	292	444	−.9	2,777	+2.9
Utah	314	312	−63.9	212	100	366	−39.5	1,754	+3.5
Nevada	126	124	+12.7	75	49	223	+10.9	603	+17.5
Pacific	7,001	6,873	−9.1	3,668	3,205	10,104	+16.4	72,850	−1.2
Washington	829	816	−14.0	371	445	1,055	−1.2	8,614	−11.3
Oregon	453	444	−25.9	307	137	821	+7.6	7,718	−4.6
California	5,719	5,613	−6.7	2,990	2,623	8,228	+20.2	56,518	+1.0

[1] Includes 872 public placements and 237 security-wage placements on work-relief projects.

TABLE 4.—*Operations of United States Employment Service, October 1937*

VETERANS

Division and State	Placements							New applications		Active file	
		Private				Public					
	Total[1]	Number	Percent of change from September	Regular (over 1 month)	Temporary (1 month or less)	Number	Percent of change from September	Number	Percent of change from September	Oct. 31	Percent of change from Sept. 30
United States	16,816	9,897	−7.5	3,334	6,563	6,677	−13.4	9,478	+8.3	237,426	−3.1
New England	597	270	−14.6	135	135	317	−0.6	830	+9.9	23,697	−3.5
Maine	108	6	+200.0	5	1	102	+8.5	40	−38.5	1,107	−4.2
New Hampshire	51	24	−53.8	10	14	27	−27.0	33	+17.9	1,024	−3.9
Vermont	41	23	−14.8	10	13	18	+28.6	19	+5.6	259	+5.7
Massachusetts	164	82	−10.9	45	37	82	−14.6	530	+16.7	17,089	−2.6
Rhode Island	41	22	−35.3	11	11	16	+100.0	64	+39.1	1,585	−5.8
Connecticut	192	113	+3.7	54	59	72	+2.9	144	0	2,633	−7.8
Middle Atlantic	1,758	977	−18.7	374	603	738	−15.2	1,245	+11.8	55,197	−3.6
New York	968	618	−15.0	172	446	334	−12.1	362	−5.7	14,034	−11.6
New Jersey	140	96	−23.8	59	37	44	−13.7	287	+34.1	10,169	+2.0
Pennsylvania	650	263	−24.4	143	120	360	−18.0	596	+15.5	30,994	−1.3
East North Central	3,223	2,158	−9.6	656	1,502	1,014	−14.4	2,038	+8.2	48,525	−1.4
Ohio	959	604	−16.3	176	428	352	−20.5	465	−5.5	13,635	−3.8
Indiana	229	184	−9.8	79	105	44	−45.7	320	+15.9	6,478	−.1
Illinois	1,183	838	−8.2	206	632	344	+18.6	571	+17.0	15,721	−2.2
Michigan	398	278	−5.4	110	168	109	−22.1	282	0	6,898	+.6
Wisconsin	454	254	−.4	85	169	165	−28.6	400	+15.6	5,793	+2.8
West North Central	2,493	1,200	−7.8	337	863	1,193	−14.6	947	−2.1	29,346	−1.2
Minnesota	559	276	+1.1	99	177	276	+11.3	210	+16.0	7,277	−2.8
Iowa	903	490	+3.6	125	365	321	−18.3	176	−6.9	3,300	−.7
Missouri	350	157	−16.0	48	109	193	+6.6	295	−6.3	9,381	−3.8
North Dakota	94	60	−32.6	23	37	34	−35.8	43	−4.4	1,180	+8.7
South Dakota	177	40	−32.2	10	30	137	−29.0	24	−22.6	2,162	+10.1
Nebraska	220	57	+5.6	12	45	162	−26.0	105	−11.8	2,286	−3.5
Kansas	190	120	−27.7	20	100	70	−36.4	94	+8.0	3,760	+.9
South Atlantic	1,746	855	−10.1	285	570	887	−9.9	771	−2.3	21,112	−6.9
Delaware	49	38	0	8	30	11	−62.1	12	−20.0	403	−.2
Maryland	180	91	−11.7	50	41	89	−8.2	101	−4.7	2,326	−14.3
District of Columbia	124	83	−23.1	14	69	41	−22.6	104	−1.9	1,995	−10.3
Virginia	256	109	−11.4	40	69	147	+5.0	101	−20.5	1,704	−1.7
West Virginia	257	80	−9.1	47	33	176	+7.3	67	−23.9	3,185	−6.8
North Carolina	311	164	−6.8	73	91	147	+5.8	146	+29.2	2,410	−9.9
South Carolina	166	106	−16.5	26	80	60	−27.7	53	+6.0	1,686	−8.8
Georgia	340	184	−2.1	27	157	156	−14.3	144	+5.9	3,151	−7.2
Florida	63	0	-------	0	0	60	−38.8	43	−10.4	4,251	−.4
East South Central	857	327	−18.7	118	209	526	−2.4	466	+2.9	14,062	−9.5
Kentucky	297	81	−22.9	33	48	216	+24.1	116	−19.4	4,746	−9.6
Tennessee	201	62	−20.5	27	35	139	+.7	147	+13.1	4,855	−7.5
Alabama	255	181	−13.4	56	125	71	−19.3	119	+7.2	2,733	−6.8
Mississippi	104	3	−70.0	2	1	100	−28.1	84	+23.5	1,728	−17.7
West South Central	1,957	1,374	+.9	285	1,089	578	−13.3	677	+6.8	15,833	−5.0
Arkansas	161	132	+41.9	35	97	29	−14.7	65	+27.5	1,945	−8.0
Louisiana	184	111	+37.0	73	38	72	+9.1	124	−1.6	3,211	−8.8
Oklahoma	252	166	+6.4	21	145	86	−44.2	96	+1.1	3,955	−7.2
Texas	1,360	965	−6.5	156	809	391	−5.3	392	+8.3	6,722	−.6
Mountain	1,248	626	+19.2	252	374	602	−27.4	501	+4.4	7,761	−.6
Montana	229	88	+11.4	64	24	139	−12.6	43	+10.3	997	−6.1
Idaho	179	111	+70.8	39	72	66	−32.7	71	+9.2	751	+1.8
Wyoming	95	21	−34.4	8	13	71	−24.5	34	−2.9	218	+4.3
Colorado	258	126	−11.3	40	86	128	−42.6	152	+14.3	2,502	−6.0
New Mexico	124	61	+10.9	15	46	63	−3.1	41	+32.3	1,561	−4.0
Arizona	139	87	+29.9	40	47	45	−15.1	95	+14.5	918	+3.3
Utah	167	94	+100.0	20	74	71	−12.3	35	−5.4	641	+43.1
Nevada	57	38	0	26	12	19	−66.1	30	−47.4	173	0
Pacific	2,937	2,110	−6.3	892	1,218	822	−10.6	2,003	+19.7	21,893	+1.8
Washington	347	172	−28.6	57	115	170	−19.4	169	+4.3	3,758	−2.1
Oregon	344	185	−4.1	26	159	159	+12.0	226	+26.3	3,231	−3.0
California	2,246	1,753	−3.6	809	944	493	−12.9	1,608	+20.7	14,904	+4.0

[1] Includes 242 security-wage placements on work-relief projects.

Trend of Employment and Pay Rolls

SUMMARY OF REPORTS FOR OCTOBER 1937

EMPLOYMENT in manufacturing and the 16 nonmanufacturing industries surveyed monthly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics was lower by 78,000 in October than in September, but weekly pay rolls were larger by $3,700,000. The gain in pay rolls was partially due to the fact that they had been reduced in September because of shut-downs for Labor Day and other holidays. More than 40 percent of the pay-roll increase was in the anthracite and bituminous-coal mining industries.

The employment level for these industries in October 1937 was 637,000 higher than in the same month of 1936, while the weekly pay-roll level was $42,800,000 higher.

Employment on class I railroads fell over the month interval, according to a preliminary tabulation by the Interstate Commerce Commission. The October tabulation showed 1,103,576 employees, exclusive of executives, officials, and staff assistants, a decrease of 17,084 since September.

Employment in the judicial and legislative services of the Federal Government was greater in October than in September. There were small decreases in employment on the other hand, in the executive and military services. Employment reports on construction programs financed in whole or in part from Federal funds showed increases on projects financed from regular Federal appropriations and by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation; there were fewer employees on construction projects financed by the Public Works Administration and Federal projects under The Works Program. The number of workers employed on projects operated by the Works Progress Administration and on work projects under the National Youth Administration decreased. A marked increase in employment on Student Aid resulted from the beginning of a new school year. Employment in the Civilian Conservation Corps increased, due to the beginning of a new enlistment period.

Industrial and Business Employment

Employment gains from September to October in coal mining and wholesale and retail trade, coupled with an employment increase in year-round hotels, were not sufficient to offset the declines in the

manufacturing industries and the remaining 11 nonmanufacturing industries surveyed.

The manufacturing industries reduced the number of wage earners on their pay rolls by 1.6 percent, or 137,000. Weekly wage disbursements increased less than 0.1 percent, or $100,000. During the 18-year period, 1919 to 1936 inclusive, for which data are available, gains in factory employment occurred in October in 9 years and in factory pay rolls in 11 years.

The factory employment index for October stood at 100.5, compared with 100 in the base period 1923–25, and with 96.7 in October 1936, while the factory pay-roll index stood at 100.1 compared with 100 in the base period and 89.0 in October of last year. Translated into actual totals, employment in manufacturing industries showed an increase of 317,000 workers over October 1936 and weekly wages a gain of $22,600,000.

Of the 89 manufacturing industries surveyed, 31 showed gains in employment over the month interval and 42 showed increases in pay rolls. The employment increases were, in most instances, of a seasonal character. Beet-sugar firms reported an employment increase of 176.3 percent due to peak-season activity, and the automobile industry showed gains of 19.0 percent in employment and 31.0 percent in pay rolls due to a resumption of operations incident to the production of new models. Among other industries reporting large employment increases which reflected seasonal activity were confectionery; wirework; men's furnishings; cottonseed—oil, cake, meal; jewelry; and slaughtering and meat packing. Smaller gains of a seasonal nature were shown in lighting equipment, cane-sugar refining, pottery, hardware, rubber goods, paper boxes, and newspapers, while contra-seasonal increases of 2.3 percent and 1.2 percent, respectively, were shown in agricultural implements and baking.

Employment decreases of 20.1 percent in aluminum manufactures and 10.8 percent in carpet and rug mills were due largely to labor troubles.

Among the industries in which seasonal factors contributed to declines in employment were canning and preserving; ice cream; tin cans and tinware; beverages; millinery; butter; silk and rayon goods; men's clothing; brick, tile, and terra cotta; boots and shoes; millwork; and petroleum refining. Among industries showing contra-seasonal declines were steam and hot-water heating apparatus, cotton goods, stoves, radios and phonographs, leather, furniture, foundries and machine shops, and women's clothing. Other industries which had fewer employees in October than in September were blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills; woolen and worsted goods; steam railroad repair shops; electrical machinery, apparatus and supplies; paper and pulp; cement; and fertilizers.

Substantial gains in employment in department, variety, and general merchandising stores and mail-order houses combined with seasonal expansion in apparel, furniture, wood, coal, and ice, and a number of other lines of retail trade resulted in an estimated increase of 54,000 retail trade workers over the month interval. This increase was smaller than the average increase in retail-trade employment in October over the preceding 5-year period (76,000). Likewise, the increase in wholesale trade of approximately 16,000 workers and the gain of 4,000 workers in anthracite mining were below the average gains (18,600 and 7,100, respectively) for October during the preceding 5 years. The increase of 11,000 workers in bituminous-coal mining in October, on the other hand, was well above the average October gain in the 5 preceding years (1,800), and the increase of 3,200 in employment in year-round hotels also compared favorably with the preceding 5-year averages.

Among the nonmanufacturing industries reporting declines were private building construction (3.3 percent) and laundries (4.0 percent). The decrease in the private building-construction industry was contra-seasonal, gains having been shown from September to October in 4 of the 5 preceding years for which data are available. The employment decline in laundries was seasonal as were the declines of 1.6 percent in dyeing and cleaning and 2.6 percent in quarrying and nonmetallic mining. The decline of 1.4 percent in metalliferous mines marked the first recession in this industry since November 1936, the decrease of 0.9 percent in crude-petroleum producing followed a series of gains which had begun in January of the current year, and the decrease of 0.2 percent in the telephone and telegraph industry marked the first decline in 10 months.

According to a preliminary tabulation by the Interstate Commerce Commission, class I railroads employed 1,103,576 workers, exclusive of executives, officials, and staff assistants, in October. This total was 1.5 percent or 17,084 lower than the number employed in September. Payroll figures for October were not available when this report was prepared. For September, the wage disbursements were $163,645,431, and for August they amounted to $169,379,107, a decrease of 3.4 percent over the month interval.

Hours and earnings.—The average number of hours worked per week in October by factory wage earners was 37.6, according to reports covering full- and part-time workers combined. This average was 0.6 percent above the September average. Average hourly earnings climbed 1.2 percent to 66.6 cents and average weekly earnings advanced 1.5 percent to $25.39.

Nine of the 14 nonmanufacturing industries for which man-hour data are available, showed more hours worked per week in October than in September and 9 reported higher hourly rates. Of the 16 nonmanu-

facturing industries covered, 13 showed increases in average weekly earnings.

Table 1 presents a summary of employment and pay-roll indexes and average weekly earnings in October 1937 for all manufacturing industries combined, for selected nonmanufacturing industries, and for class I railroads, with percentage changes over the month and year intervals except in the few industries for which data are not available.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, and Earnings in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in Nonmanufacturing Industries, October 1937*

[Preliminary figures]

Industry	Employment			Pay roll			Average weekly earnings		
	Index October 1937	Percentage change from—		Index October 1937	Percentage change from—		Average in October 1937	Percentage change from—	
		September 1937	October 1936		September 1937	October 1936		September 1937	October 1936
	(*1923–25 = 100*)			(*1923–25 = 100*)					
All manufacturing industries combined [1]	100.5	−1.6	+3.9	100.1	(*)	+12.5	$25.39	+1.6	+8.3
Class I steam railroads [2]	62.5	−1.4	+.6	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
	(*1929 = 100*)			(*1929 = 100*)					
Coal mining:									
Anthracite	51.0	+5.7	+2.2	51.0	+62.3	+5.2	29.14	+53.4	+2.9
Bituminous	82.9	+3.0	+2.3	86.0	+10.7	+8.6	26.25	+7.5	+6.2
Metalliferous mining	82.9	−1.4	+29.2	81.7	−.7	+52.1	31.26	+.7	+17.7
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	53.3	−2.6	−2.4	49.3	−1.6	+6.8	23.70	+1.0	+9.4
Crude petroleum producing	77.5	−.9	+5.2	69.9	−1.8	+17.4	33.64	−.9	+11.6
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph	79.9	−.2	+8.2	94.3	+2.2	+13.5	31.44	+2.3	+4.8
Electric light and power and manufactured gas	98.5	−.1	+4.8	105.3	+1.2	+13.5	34.23	+1.4	+8.3
Electric-railroad and motor-bus operation and maintenance	73.4	−.4	+.4	71.4	−.3	+5.4	31.93	+.1	+5.0
Trade:									
Wholesale	94.0	+1.0	+5.6	79.3	+1.4	+11.0	30.45	+.4	+5.0
Retail	92.1	+1.5	+3.8	75.9	+2.0	+11.1	21.96	+.5	+7.0
General merchandising	108.1	+4.2	+4.0	96.2	+4.1	+10.3	18.95	−.2	+6.0
Other than general merchandising	87.9	+.7	+3.8	71.7	+1.4	+11.4	24.89	+.7	+7.3
Hotels (year-round) [4]	89.2	+1.2	+4.4	77.7	+2.1	+11.7	15.11	+.8	+7.0
Laundries	89.9	−4.0	+2.7	81.5	−3.5	+8.2	16.96	+.6	+5.4
Dyeing and cleaning	85.3	−1.6	−1.4	71.4	−2.0	+7.1	20.78	−.3	+8.7
Brokerage	(3)	−2.9	−4.0	(3)	−3.2	−1.0	38.52	−.4	+3.2
Insurance	(3)	−.1	+1.6	(3)	+.3	+5.2	38.45	+.4	+3.6
Building construction	(3)	−3.3	+.4	(3)	−3.0	+13.9	31.22	+.4	+13.7

* Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
[1] Revised indexes; adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures.
[2] Preliminary; source, Interstate Commerce Commission.
[3] Not available.
[4] Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

Public Employment

Employment on construction projects financed from Public Works Administration funds has been decreasing since May 1937. The October figure of 150,000 marked the low point of any of the preceding months of 1937. This was a decrease of 17,000 compared with September. Decreases occurred in the number of workers employed

on Federal and non-Federal projects financed from funds provided by the National Industrial Recovery Act and on projects financed from funds provided by the Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts of 1935 and 1936. Pay-roll disbursements totaling $12,903,000 were $1,406,000 less than in September.

The level of employment on construction projects financed from regular Federal appropriations was higher than in any of the preceding 12 months. Employment during October reached a peak of 218,000. Compared with September this was an increase of 12,000. Gains in employment were reported for the following types of projects: Building construction, electrification, forestry, naval vessels, reclamation, river, harbor, and flood control, and streets and roads. The number of workers employed on heavy engineering, public roads, water and sewerage, and miscellaneous projects was somewhat lower in October than in the preceding month. Although there was an increase in the total number of workers employed on all types of projects, fewer hours were worked. Pay-roll disbursements totaling $20,911,000 were $756,000 less than in September.

There was a moderate increase in employment on projects financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation. Approximately 4,000 workers were employed on the program. Increases in employment occurred on building construction and water and sewerage projects. Employment on miscellaneous projects decreased. Pay rolls for the month totaled $558,000.

The number of wage earners on projects financed by The Works Program during October was 2,063,000, an increase of 176,000 compared with September. The marked increase in employment on Student Aid at the beginning of the school year more than offset the decreases in employment on other projects of The Works Program. Of the total number employed in October, 193,000 were working on Federal projects under The Works Program, 1,527,000 on projects operated by the Works Progress Administration, and 343,000 on work projects of the National Youth Administration and Student Aid. Pay-roll disbursements for all projects totaled $96,483,000.

In the regular services of the Federal Government increases were reported in the judicial and legislative services. Decreases occurred in the executive and military services. Of the 828,000 employees in the executive service in October, 111,000 were working in the District of Columbia and 717,000 outside the District. Approximately 91.8 percent of the total number of employees in the executive service were paid from regular appropriations and 8.2 percent from emergency funds. Among the departments reporting decreases were the War Department and the Works Progress Administration.

October marked the beginning of a new enlistment period for the Civilian Conservation Corps. During this month 363,000 workers

were employed, an increase of 74,000 compared with the preceding month. Sharp increases in the number of enrolled personnel and supervisory and technical employees more than offset small decreases in the number of reserve officers, nurses, and educational advisers. Pay-roll disbursements for all workers totaling $15,623,000 were $672,000 greater than in September.

More than 187,000 employees were working on road projects financed wholly from State funds. This was a decrease of 6,000 compared with September. A decrease in employment was shown for maintenance work, while a small increase occurred on new construction. Of the total number employed 85.4 percent were engaged in maintenance work and 14.6 percent on new road construction. For both types of work pay-roll disbursements amounted to $12,135,000.

A summary of Federal employment and pay-roll statistics for September and October is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Federal Employment and Pay Rolls, October 1937* [1]

[Preliminary figures]

Class	Employment		Percentage change	Pay rolls		Percentage change
	October	September		October	September	
Federal services:						
Executive [2]	827,701	[3] 836,593	−1.1	$122,944,783	[3] $125,926,964	−2.4
Judicial	1,975	1,908	+3.5	501,589	504,220	−.5
Legislative	5,347	5,273	+1.4	1,229,405	1,215,658	+1.1
Military	322,763	323,292	−.2	25,207,388	25,284,004	−.3
Construction projects:						
Financed by P. W. A. [4]	149,564	166,958	−10.4	12,903,311	14,309,249	−9.8
Financed by R. F. C. [5]	4,261	[3] 4,056	+5.1	558,419	[3] 541,264	+3.2
Financed by regular Federal appropriations	218,347	206,663	+5.7	20,911,266	21,667,700	−3.5
Federal projects under The Works Program	192,631	193,114	−.3	11,452,256	11,500,978	−.4
Projects operated by W. P. A.	1,527,604	1,536,029	−.5	81,486,784	81,250,907	+.3
National Youth Administration:						
Work projects	121,599	[3] 127,219	−4.4	2,117,482	[3] 2,192,605	−3.4
Student Aid	221,507	[3] 30,879	+617.3	1,426,782	[3] 139,188	+925.1
Civilian Conservation Corps	363,256	289,167	+25.6	15,622,911	[3] 14,950,554	+4.5

[1] Includes data on projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds.

[2] Includes 114,937 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $14,015,938 for October; 109,618 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $13,709,037 for September; covering force-account and supervisory and technical employees shown under other classifications.

[3] Revised.

[4] Data covering P. W. A. projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935 and 1936 funds are included. These data are not shown under The Works Program. Includes 101,864 wage earners and $8,252,933 pay roll for October; 114,803 wage earners and $9,309,180 pay roll for September; covering P. W. A. projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935 and 1936 funds.

[5] Includes 78 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $6,206 for October, and 133 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $13,553 for September, on projects financed by the R. F. C. Mortgage Co.

DETAILED REPORTS FOR INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS EMPLOYMENT, SEPTEMBER 1937

A MONTHLY report on employment and pay rolls is published as a separate pamphlet by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This gives detailed data regarding employment, pay rolls, working hours, and employment for the current month for industrial and business estab-

lishments and for various forms of public employment. This pamphlet is distributed free upon request. Its principal contents for the month of September, insofar as industrial and business employment is concerned, are reproduced in this section of the Monthly Labor Review.

Monthly reports on employment and pay rolls in industrial and business industries are available for the following groups: 89 manufacturing industries; 16 nonmanufacturing industries, including private building construction; and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first two of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and in virtually all industries the samples are large enough to be entirely representative. The figures on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission.

Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings

The indexes of employment and pay rolls, average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries in September 1937 are shown in table 1. Percentage changes from August 1937 and September 1936 are also given.

Average weekly earnings shown in table 1 are computed by dividing the total weekly pay rolls in the reporting establishments by the total number of full and part-time employees reported. As all reporting establishments do not supply man-hour data, average hours worked per week and average hourly earnings are necessarily based on data supplied by a smaller number of reporting firms. The size and composition of the reporting sample varies slightly from month to month and therefore the average hours per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings shown in the two following tables are not strictly comparable from month to month. The sample, however, is believed to be sufficiently adequate in virtually all instances to indicate the general movements of earnings and hours over the period shown.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, September 1937*

MANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 3-year average 1923–25=100 and are adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures]

Industry	Employment			Pay rolls			Average weekly earnings [1]			Average hours worked per week [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Index September 1937	Percentage change from—		Index September 1937	Percentage change from—		September 1937	Percentage change from—		September 1937	Percentage change from—		September 1937	Percentage change from—	
		August 1937	September 1936		August 1937	September 1936		August 1937	September 1936		August 1937	September 1936		August 1937	September 1936
													Cents		
All manufacturing industries	102.1	−0.2	+6.9	100.1	−3.6	+19.7	$24.92	−3.4	+12.0	37.4	−3.4	−3.6	65.8	0	+15.9
Durable goods	97.3	−.8	+13.5	99.4	−4.4	+28.8	28.18	−3.6	+13.4	38.6	−3.9	−4.2	72.4	+.2	+18.1
Nondurable goods	107.3	+.4	+1.3	100.9	−2.5	+10.2	21.30	−2.9	+8.7	36.1	−2.8	−3.4	59.0	−.1	+12.2
Durable goods															
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	108.8	+.1	+11.9	112.9	−6.2	+29.6	29.37	−6.3	+15.8	37.8	−5.4	−7.1	76.8	−.8	+23.6
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	121.4	−(2)	+13.2	129.7	−8.9	+32.7	31.65	−8.8	+17.3	37.5	−7.4	−8.8	84.2	−1.7	+27.5
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	87.5	+.9	+14.1	96.9	−3.8	+25.2	25.21	−4.6	+9.8	37.6	−5.1	−5.7	67.3	+(2)	+16.3
Cast-iron pipe	64.9	−3.9	−1.4	48.9	−8.7	+9.0	20.15	−5.0	+10.6	35.1	−5.6	−5.5	56.7	+.4	+15.3
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery) and edge tools	89.9	+.8	+13.2	86.7	+2.0	+24.6	24.32	+1.2	+10.2	40.7	−.3	−2.4	61.0	+1.5	+12.3
Forgings, iron and steel	73.0	+1.6	+23.2	69.6	+3.7	+47.0	29.23	+2.1	+19.4	39.7	−.3	+5.0	73.9	+2.5	+13.9
Hardware	92.6	+3.1	+24.1	101.4	−2.3	+41.9	24.58	−5.2	+14.3	36.5	−5.0	−6.7	67.2	−.4	+22.9
Plumbers' supplies	94.5	+1.0	+12.7	72.7	−5.0	+22.0	24.57	−5.9	+8.3	37.2	−6.3	−4.9	65.9	+.3	+14.0
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	77.4	+1.3	+7.4	72.2	+.8	+23.5	26.97	−.6	+15.0	38.7	−1.5	−4.2	69.7	+.7	+20.0
Stoves	113.4	+.7	+1.0	97.8	+.9	+3.5	25.37	+.2	+2.4	28.9	−1.0	−6.1	65.3	+.8	+8.5
Structural and ornamental metalwork	82.3	+1.1	+9.3	83.9	−1.0	+27.2	28.69	−2.0	+16.5	40.7	−2.3	−2.0	70.6	+.2	+19.0
Tin cans and other tinware	114.0	−3.3	+2.2	122.9	−4.6	+9.3	23.97	−1.4	+6.9	39.7	−3.3	−5.1	60.8	+2.7	+13.9
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	98.4	−2.0	+15.7	103.6	−2.9	+26.3	24.54	−.9	+9.1	39.7	−1.3	−4.1	61.6	+.4	+13.7
Wirework	170.3	−.6	+14.0	166.8	+3.8	+45.4	24.47	+4.4	+27.6	35.6	+2.7	−1.4	68.7	+1.7	+29.4
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	130.7	+.4	+21.6	134.3	−2.0	+41.8	28.47	−2.4	+16.7	39.7	−3.3	−.6	71.6	+.9	+17.5
Agricultural implements	147.2	+4.4	+56.8	189.2	+2.7	+117.1	28.78	−1.6	+39.4	38.8	−3.2	+13.0	74.4	+1.7	+24.7
Cash registers, adding machines, and calculating machines	136.5	+1.2	+17.4	146.5	+4.6	+40.0	33.20	+3.4	+19.1	40.9	+1.6	+4.5	81.9	+1.9	+13.9
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	121.3	+.2	+25.7	124.1	−2.2	+47.1	28.05	−2.3	+17.1	38.4	−2.7	−.9	73.1	+.2	+17.2
Engines, turbines, tractors, and water wheels	153.6	+1.7	+35.4	158.8	+2.1	+72.5	32.00	+.4	+27.4	39.2	−.6	+7.0	82.2	+1.1	+19.2
	111.9	−.6	+18.7	114.2	−4.0	+34.4	28.42	−3.5	+13.3	40.4	−4.9	−2.9	70.3	+1.4	+17.0
	92.36	+1.3	+17.2							44.2	+.5	+4.2	73.3	+.9	+12.3
														+.4	+15.7

Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	121.3	+.2	+25.7	124.1	−2.2	+47.1	28.05	−2.3	+17.1	38.4	−2.7	−.9	73.1	+.2	+17.2
Engines, turbines, tractors, and water wheels	153.6	+1.7	+35.4	158.8	+2.1	+72.5	32.00	+.4	+27.4	39.2	−.6	+7.0	82.2	+1.1	+19.2
Foundry and machine-shop products	111.9	−.6	+18.7	114.2	−4.0	+34.4	28.42	−3.5	+13.3	40.4	−4.9	−2.9	70.3	+1.4	+17.0
Machine tools	157.6	+2.0	+27.0	165.5	+3.3	+48.9	32.36	+1.3	+17.2	44.2	+.5	+4.2	73.3	+.9	+12.3
Radios and phonographs	208.3	+2.4	−3.7	173.9	−1.1	+8.0	21.94	−3.4	+12.2	36.9	−4.1	−1.1	60.0	+.4	+15.7
Textile machinery and parts	84.0	−2.1	+15.4	85.2	−3.4	+34.6	27.18	−1.3	+16.7	41.3	−.7	+4.9	65.9	−.7	+11.8
Typewriters and parts	151.2	−.5	+24.8	142.8	−.7	+27.0	25.20	−.2	+1.7	39.5	−.6	−8.0	63.8	+.4	+13.9
Transportation equipment	107.0	−4.3	+22.6	104.4	−7.4	+36.8	30.57	−3.3	+11.7	35.0	−2.7	−5.4	87.4	−.9	+18.2
Aircraft	766.8	−5.6	+26.5	670.4	−10.7	+36.4	26.71	−5.5	+7.8	38.5	−5.1	−4.1	69.3	−.4	+12.5
Automobiles	112.5	−5.2	+24.6	105.6	−8.4	+36.6	30.93	−3.4	+9.6	34.2	−2.1	−8.2	90.4	−1.4	+19.8
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	68.5	−5.7	+19.6	79.7	−8.8	+51.5	27.89	−3.3	+26.6	37.4	−5.1	+6.6	74.7	+1.9	+17.6
Locomotives	64.4	+1.8	+71.3	55.0	+4.5	+113.0	33.28	+2.7	+24.3	43.7	+.3	+7.6	76.1	+2.3	+15.5
Shipbuilding	106.2	+3.7	+3.7	119.0	+.1	+19.7	30.34	−3.5	+15.3	35.8	−5.6	+3.5	83.2	+1.4	+8.4
Railroad repair shops	60.4	−2.7	+1.9	63.1	−6.2	+6.6	30.05	−3.6	+4.7	41.0	−7.4	−.6	73.4	+4.1	+5.3
Electric railroad	63.4	+.6	+1.6	67.7	−1.4	+10.5	30.24	−2.0	+8.8	43.6	−2.3	+2.3	67.9	+.4	+7.0
Steam railroad	60.2	−2.9	+2.0	62.9	−6.6	+6.5	30.02	−3.8	+4.4	40.8	−7.8	−.8	73.8	+4.4	+5.2
Nonferrous metals and their products	114.1	+1.2	+10.9	110.1	+.2	+25.1	25.95	−.9	+12.9	39.1	−1.3	−4.9	66.0	+.5	+18.8
Aluminum manufactures	131.0	−1.2	+17.4	135.7	−3.9	+37.3	26.05	−2.7	+16.8	39.5	−4.1	−1.3	66.0	+1.4	+18.7
Brass, bronze, and copper products	114.8	−1.8	+7.2	113.2	−2.9	+18.9	27.94	−1.1	+10.9	38.1	−1.7	−9.7	73.4	+.5	+22.9
Clocks and watches and time-recording devices	127.0	+2.7	+12.4	128.0	+5.0	+22.5	22.91	+2.2	+8.9	40.1	+.7	−4.1	57.2	+1.6	+14.7
Jewelry	101.1	+5.3	+6.1	81.7	+10.2	+13.1	24.73	+4.6	+6.7	40.7	+2.1	−5.2	60.0	+1.5	+9.7
Lighting equipment	97.3	+7.2	+14.6	98.6	+13.6	+31.7	25.50	+6.0	+15.0	39.1	+4.7	−5.9	65.4	+1.1	+21.9
Silverware and plated ware	79.5	+4.2	+18.4	81.4	+12.2	+48.0	27.81	+7.7	+24.9	43.5	+7.3	+15.5	64.7	+.8	+7.0
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc	93.0	+1.1	+19.4	88.6	−4.1	+38.4	28.01	−5.1	+15.9	40.2	−5.3	−2.6	69.7	+.1	+19.0
Stamped and enameled ware	153.2	−.1	+6.9	149.2	−5.0	+21.3	22.69	−4.9	+13.5	37.3	−4.6	−5.1	60.9	−.4	+20.5
Lumber and allied products	71.7	−1.8	+5.1	68.2	−4.5	+13.1	21.41	−2.8	+7.6	40.3	−3.6	−6.0	53.8	+.5	+13.9
Furniture	89.1	−.2	+4.8	78.2	−1.2	+10.0	20.85	−1.0	+5.0	40.5	−1.8	−8.0	51.6	+.4	+13.6
Lumber:															
Millwork	55.6	−2.7	+5.6	53.2	−5.2	+14.2	22.09	−2.6	+8.1	40.8	−3.8	−7.1	54.3	+1.3	+15.9
Sawmills	54.6	−2.3	+5.3	52.6	−6.5	+14.8	21.65	−4.4	+9.1	40.0	−4.7	−4.8	55.0	+.4	+13.7
Stone, clay, and glass products	72.7	+1.1	+6.6	69.9	−.9	+20.1	24.38	−2.0	+12.7	38.3	−3.5	−1.9	64.3	+1.9	+14.4
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	52.3	+.5	+4.3	46.4	+.3	+17.7	21.64	−.2	+12.9	39.4	−3.2	−6.6	54.9	+3.2	+21.2
Cement	69.9	−(1)	+7.3	72.8	−5.6	+19.2	26.20	−5.6	+11.0	38.5	−6.4	−3.7	68.0	+.9	+15.4
Glass	111.1	+1.4	+11.9	118.7	−1.3	+30.2	25.68	−2.7	+16.3	36.8	−4.5	+3.8	70.0	+2.0	+12.1
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	44.9	+.9	−1.0	39.8	+.2	+5.3	25.71	−.7	+6.3	38.7	−1.0	−.3	66.9	+.6	+6.7
Pottery	77.0	+1.7	+1.6	66.8	+3.1	+8.5	22.71	+1.4	+6.7	39.4	−.4	−3.8	61.6	+1.6	+13.4
Nondurable goods															
Textiles and their products	101.6	−1.2	−1.7	87.1	−5.4	+3.8	16.99	−4.4	+5.7	33.2	−3.5	−5.6	51.6	+.1	+12.0
Fabrics	94.9	−2.5	−.9	85.3	−5.2	+6.0	16.79	−2.8	+7.0	34.4	−2.8	−5.8	49.2	+.4	+14.3
Carpets and rugs	99.4	−1.4	+10.2	84.5	−13.4	+1.9	20.05	−12.2	−7.5	30.8	−13.0	−22.7	65.0	+.8	+18.0
Cotton goods	98.3	−2.5	+2.4	92.4	−4.7	+13.4	14.84	−2.3	+10.7	34.9	−2.5	−5.0	42.4	+.2	+17.1
Cotton small wares	97.8	+1.5	+1.3	95.9	+5.7	+8.6	18.02	+4.1	+7.2	37.0	+3.8	−1.3	49.6	+.6	+11.4
Dying and finishing textiles	110.5	+.9	−.8	94.9	+1.2	+1.9	20.86	+.2	+2.6	36.3	−.2	−8.6	57.1	+.6	+13.2
Hats, fur-felt	85.5	−3.6	−2.3	69.2	−20.5	−9.2	21.92	−17.5	−7.0	30.8	−14.9	−16.7	70.9	−7.1	+6.1
Knit goods	116.5	+.1	−3.0	116.9	−2.1	−.2	17.43	−2.2	+3.0	34.3	−3.0	−5.8	52.0	+1.4	+10.0
Silk and rayon goods	79.9	−.4	−2.0	68.2	+3.7	+5.7	16.55	+4.2	+7.8	35.1	+2.4	−3.7	46.9	+2.4	+11.4
Woolen and worsted goods	70.4	−10.1	−9.6	57.6	−15.9	+4.0	18.82	−6.5	+15.0	32.1	−6.4	−3.8	58.9	+.2	+19.8

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, September 1937*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Employment			Pay rolls			Average weekly earnings			Average hours worked per week			Average hourly earnings		
	Index September 1937	Percentage change from—		Index September 1937	Percentage change from—		September 1937	Percentage change from—		September 1937	Percentage change from—		September 1937	Percentage change from—	
		August 1937	September 1936		August 1937	September 1936		August 1937	September 1936		August 1937	September 1936		August 1937	September 1936
Nondurable goods—Continued															
Textiles and their products—Continued.													*Cents*		
Wearing apparel	114.4	+1.2	−3.4	87.0	−5.8	0	$17.53	−7.1	+3.4	30.8	−4.8	−5.6	56.3	−0.9	+8.7
Clothing, men's	108.7	−2.1	−.4	83.9	−8.6	+4.3	18.12	−6.6	+4.7	29.8	−5.9	−6.6	61.7	+1.0	+12.3
Clothing, women's	152.2	+4.1	−6.6	105.3	−7.3	−2.9	18.94	−10.9	+3.8	30.1	−6.0	−4.3	58.4	−3.3	+8.7
Corsets and allied garments	88.9	+1.0	+.9	84.2	+3.0	−.3	15.62	+2.0	−1.2	32.6	+1.3	−6.6	47.5	−.2	+5.4
Men's furnishings	127.7	+(2)	−2.9	95.4	−6.9	−2.1	13.43	−6.9	+1.0	31.6	−5.0	−9.4	38.1	−4.0	+6.8
Millinery	56.7	+7.2	−10.5	49.0	+21.4	−3.6	25.05	+13.2	+7.5						
Shirts and collars	119.2	+2.8	−1.1	103.0	+.2	−1.6	12.88	−2.5	−.5	32.8	−4.0	−8.2	40.4	+.5	+8.6
Leather and its manufactures	92.7	−4.0	−1.5	71.6	−14.5	−5.4	17.94	−10.9	−4.0	32.9	−12.3	−11.3	55.0	+1.5	+8.1
Boots and shoes	94.0	−4.6	−.5	64.5	−18.1	−8.8	16.49	−14.1	−8.3	31.7	−14.8	−13.7	53.0	+1.9	+7.4
Leather	92.5	−1.4	−5.0	98.6	−5.0	+3.3	23.70	−3.6	+8.7	37.7	−3.1	−2.2	63.0	−.2	+10.9
Food and kindred products	137.8	+4.0	+1.4	133.2	+1.5	+14.3	23.03	−2.3	+12.8	40.5	−1.4	+(2)	57.0	−1.8	+13.2
Baking	136.7	+1.1	+4.1	135.1	+2.8	+15.5	25.90	+1.7	+10.9	42.8	+1.2	+3.2	60.8	+.5	+7.6
Beverages	223.3	−3.2	+6.6	253.0	−7.5	+11.4	33.27	−4.5	+4.5	40.2	−4.6	−2.2	83.2	+.2	+6.6
Butter	91.6	−2.8	+6.1	73.8	−5.2	+9.2	22.35	−2.4	+2.9						
Canning and preserving	311.5	+12.1	+2.0	307.1	+4.5	+18.6	15.75	−6.8	+16.2	36.9	−4.3	−1.7	44.3	−2.7	+19.7
Confectionery	85.4	+16.5	−3.1	89.0	+18.4	+9.3	18.79	+1.6	+12.8	40.8	+5.8	+.9	46.5	−3.6	+13.1
Flour	76.8	−.9	−.2	80.7	+.6	+13.9	27.15	+1.6	+14.2	45.3	+.7	+2.0	59.2	+1.3	+11.1
Ice cream	82.2	−8.5	+6.3	74.0	−12.1	+9.1	27.83	−4.0	+2.7	46.3	−6.9	−(2)	59.7	+2.3	+2.6
Slaughtering and meat packing	86.8	−(2)	−4.5	98.0	+1.5	+15.2	23.35	+1.5	+20.6	41.1	+2.1	−.4	69.1	−.5	+22.0
Sugar, beet	91.6	+28.5	−2.8	100.7	+35.0	+6.0	26.01	+5.0	+9.1	44.7	+13.0	−5.1	59.6	−6.1	+16.0
Sugar refining, cane	67.2	−12.7	−14.2	60.1	−26.0	−6.3	24.96	−15.2	+9.3	36.2	−15.7	−6.9	69.0	+2.4	+15.1
Tobacco manufactures	62.1	+.5	−2.4	56.5	−1.2	+6.0	17.12	−1.7	+8.6	37.0	−2.1	−1.7	46.0	+.3	+11.1
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	55.8	+.2	+1.1	70.0	+5.5	+12.7	18.81	+5.3	+11.5	37.2	+4.9	−1.0	51.0	+.6	+12.9
Cigars and cigarettes	62.8	+.5	−2.8	54.9	−2.2	+5.2	16.79	−2.7	+8.4	37.0	−2.8	−1.8	45.5	+.3	+10.8
Paper and printing	107.7	+1.3	+5.0	103.7	+1.1	+12.7	27.89	−.2	+7.4	38.4	−1.5	−.6	75.1	+.8	+7.3
Boxes, paper	102.8	+.3	+1.2	103.3	+.5	+4.6	20.53	+.2	+3.4	39.2	−.3	−7.5	52.8	+.2	+11.0
Paper and pulp	119.1	−(2)	+7.9	117.6	−5.0	+23.5	24.71	−5.0	+14.5	39.2	−5.2	−1.4	63.0	+.2	+16.2
Printing and publishing:															
Book and job		+2.0	+3.1	92.8	+3.6	+13.6	29.69	+1.5	+7.0	33.6	+.4	+4.4	77.9	+1.0	+2.5
Newspapers and periodicals	105.9	+2.8	+2.3	103.8	+4.7	+6.4	37.03	+1.8	+3.9	36.9	+.9	−1.4	96.5	+.4	+5.2

Book and job															
Newspapers and periodicals	105.9	+2.0 +2.8	+6.1 +2.3	92.8 103.8	+3.6 +4.7	+13.6 +6.4	29.69 37.03	+1.5 +1.8	+7.0 +3.9	33.6 36.9	+.4 +.9	+4.4 −1.4	77.9 96.5	+1.0 +.4	+2.5 +5.2
Chemicals and allied products, and petroleum refining	128.6	+3.0	+7.6	139.0	−1.2	+24.1	28.19	−4.1	+15.4	39.0	−1.0	−.4	74.0	−2.0	+16.6
Other than petroleum refining	128.9	+3.9	+8.5	137.7	0	+24.5	25.92	−3.8	+14.7	40.2	−.1	−.9	66.1	−2.4	+16.5
Chemicals	137.4	+.1	+8.1	150.9	−3.3	+25.6	30.47	−3.4	+16.3	38.9	−4.1	−2.8	78.4	+.7	+19.5
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal	120.7	+122.4	+24.5	112.4	+134.7	+43.4	13.14	+5.5	+15.1	53.2	+10.8	+4.7	24.9	−4.8	+9.9
Druggists' preparations	114.1	+2.1	+10.6	127.3	+3.5	+18.7	24.29	+1.4	+7.2	40.8	+2.4	+3.3	57.8	+1.1	+5.0
Explosives	97.6	+2.0	+6.8	106.4	−.6	+19.2	30.89	−2.5	+11.6	38.9	−1.7	−.9	79.5	−.8	+12.7
Fertilizers	84.6	+15.6	+8.6	97.2	+23.0	+27.8	19.16	+6.4	+17.8	41.1	+5.2	−(2)	46.7	+1.2	+18.8
Paints and varnishes	132.4	−.3	+4.5	131.6	−2.9	+15.4	27.53	−2.6	+10.4	39.6	−2.6	−3.0	69.6	−.2	+13.6
Rayon and allied products	407.1	+.9	+13.1	393.6	−1.8	+30.2	23.88	−2.6	+15.1	38.4	−2.4	−2.6	64.6	+(2)	+18.6
Soap	103.1	+1.1	−3.4	122.1	+3.7	+20.9	28.68	+2.5	+25.4	39.9	+1.3	+2.9	72.7	+1.4	+22.3
Petroleum refining	127.2	−.8	+4.0	143.1	−4.9	+23.1	34.16	−4.1	+18.3	35.5	−4.4	+1.0	97.4	+.2	+18.4
Rubber products	98.0	+.1	+3.9	97.4	+.4	+5.6	26.64	+.3	+1.6	34.5	−.5	−6.2	79.1	+.5	+10.6
Rubber boots and shoes	78.7	+2.0	+1.7	75.9	+3.7	+23.3	24.24	+1.6	+21.2	40.0	+.8	+5.1	60.6	+.9	+16.5
Rubber goods, other than boots, shoes, tires, and inner tubes	134.7	−.3	+8.1	132.6	−1.2	+15.4	22.60	−.9	+6.7	37.5	−1.5	−3.3	60.6	+.5	+12.7
Rubber tires and inner tubes	88.3	−.1	+2.0	90.4	+.6	−1.6	29.76	+.7	−3.7	30.8	−.1	−12.3	97.0	+.5	+9.6

NONMANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 12-month average 1929=100]

Coal mining:															
Anthracite	48.2	+17.1	+1.2	31.5	+15.5	−9.8	18.99	−1.4	−10.9	20.8	−4.0	−20.1	90.8	−1.4	+8.4
Bituminous	80.5	+2.1	+3.0	77.7	+5.3	+9.4	24.37	+3.1	+6.2	27.5	+3.5	−6.5	89.0	−.5	+12.3
Metalliferous mining	84.1	+.8	+33.2	82.2	−.9	+64.5	31.22	−1.7	+23.5	43.6	−2.0	+4.5	71.6	+.4	+18.1
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	54.7	−.4	−.4	50.1	−5.8	+12.0	22.86	−5.4	+12.4	42.1	−5.0	−1.4	53.9	−.2	+14.0
Crude-petroleum producing	78.3	−1.2	+5.1	71.2	+.6	+17.9	33.41	+1.8	+12.1	40.2	+2.2	+3.2	83.6	−.3	+8.4
Public utilities:															
Telephone and telegraph	80.1	+.3	+8.7	93.1	+1.0	+18.1	31.81	+.7	+8.6	39.5	−.4	+2.6	83.8	+.8	+6.0
Electric light and power and manufactured gas	98.5	+.2	+5.3	103.8	+1.2	+13.5	34.04	+1.0	+7.8	40.1	+1.8	+.6	85.4	−.7	+8.9
Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance	73.7	+.4	+1.2	71.6	−2.2	+7.7	31.70	−2.5	+6.5	46.0	−2.4	+1.0	68.1	+.4	+6.2
Trade:															
Wholesale	93.0	+1.4	+5.7	78.3	−.9	+11.1	30.60	−2.3	+5.0	42.6	−1.3	+.2	71.7	−1.2	+5.5
Retail	90.6	+5.1	+4.6	74.5	+3.0	+11.9	22.36	−2.0	+6.9	42.8	−1.5	−1.4	56.3	−.6	+8.2
General merchandising	103.6	+10.5	+5.2	92.6	+8.0	+11.8	19.37	−2.2	+6.3	39.1	+.3	−3.0	51.7	−2.2	+10.8
Other than general merchandising	87.2	+3.6	+4.4	70.7	+1.7	+11.7	24.71	−1.8	+7.0	44.0	−1.8	−1.0	57.7	−.1	+7.6
Hotels (year-round) [3]	88.1	+1.5	+4.6	76.1	+2.3	+12.7	15.00	+.8	+7.8	47.4	+.4	+.6	31.6	+.7	+6.9
Laundries	93.7	−.5	+4.6	84.4	−1.9	+10.2	16.84	−1.3	+5.4	42.5	−2.3	−.8	39.7	+1.3	+6.7
Dyeing and cleaning	86.7	+2.1	−(2)	72.8	+5.5	+10.2	20.61	+3.4	+10.2	43.9	+1.5	+1.9	47.4	+2.2	+6.1
Brokerage	(4)	−1.9	−1.4	(4)	−2.5	+2.4	38.77	−.6	+3.8	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Insurance	(4)	−.2	+1.5	(4)	−2.4	+4.3	38.59	−2.2	+2.8	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Building construction	(4)	−.7	+6.3	(4)	−2.2	+23.2	31.76	−1.5	+16.0	34.1	−1.5	+2.1	92.8	−.2	+13.9

[1] Average weekly earnings are computed from figures furnished by all reporting establishments. Average hours and average hourly earnings are computed from data supplied by a smaller number of establishments as all reporting firms do not furnish man-hours. Percentage changes over year are computed from indexes. Percentage changes over month in average weekly earnings for the manufacturing groups, for all manufacturing industries combined, and for retail trade are also computed from indexes.

[2] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

[3] Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

[4] Not available.

Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls, January 1936 to September 1937

Indexes of employment and pay rolls are given in tables 2 and 3 for all manufacturing industries combined, for the durable- and nondurable-goods groups of manufacturing industries, and for 13 nonmanufacturing industries, including 2 subgroups under retail trade, by months from January 1936 to September 1937, inclusive. The accompanying chart indicates the trend of factory employment and pay rolls from January 1919 to September 1937.

The indexes of factory employment and pay rolls are computed from returns supplied by representative establishments in 89 manufacturing industries and cover wage earners only. The base used in computing these indexes is the 3-year average, 1923–25, as 100. In September 1937 reports were received from 25,289 manufacturing establishments employing over 5,000,000 workers, whose weekly earnings were more than $125,000,000. The employment reports received from these establishments cover more than 55 percent of the total wage earners in all manufacturing industries of the country and more than 65 percent of the wage earners in the 89 industries included in the monthly survey of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in the Durable- and Nondurable-Goods Groups* [1]

[Adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures—3-year average 1923-25=100

Month	Manufacturing											
	Total				Durable goods [2]				Nondurable goods [3]			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	86.8	96.5	73.8	90.7	78.7	90.4	66.9	86.6	95.4	103.0	82.5	96.0
February	86.9	99.0	73.7	95.8	78.6	93.2	66.6	92.5	95.8	105.2	82.7	99.9
March	87.9	101.1	77.6	101.1	80.2	96.4	71.8	100.0	96.1	106.1	84.9	102.6
April	89.1	102.1	79.3	104.9	82.3	98.6	76.0	106.4	96.3	105.9	83.5	102.9
May	89.8	102.3	80.8	105.2	84.0	99.9	78.5	107.5	96.0	104.8	83.8	102.3
June	90.1	101.1	81.1	102.9	84.7	98.8	79.0	104.6	95.9	103.5	83.9	100.8
July	91.2	101.4	80.2	100.4	84.6	98.9	75.9	100.7	98.2	104.1	85.6	100.0
August	93.5	102.3	83.5	103.8	84.7	98.1	77.0	[4] 104.0	102.8	[4] 106.9	91.8	[4] 103.5
September	95.5	102.1	83.6	100.1	85.7	97.3	77.2	99.4	105.9	107.3	91.6	100.9
October	96.7	-------	89.0	-------	89.2	-------	85.3	-------	104.7	-------	93.7	-------
November	96.9	-------	90.7	-------	91.0	-------	88.9	-------	103.3	-------	92.9	-------
December	98.1	-------	95.2	-------	92.7	-------	93.4	-------	104.0	-------	97.5	-------
Average	91.9	-------	82.4	-------	84.7	-------	78.0	-------	99.5	-------	87.9	-------

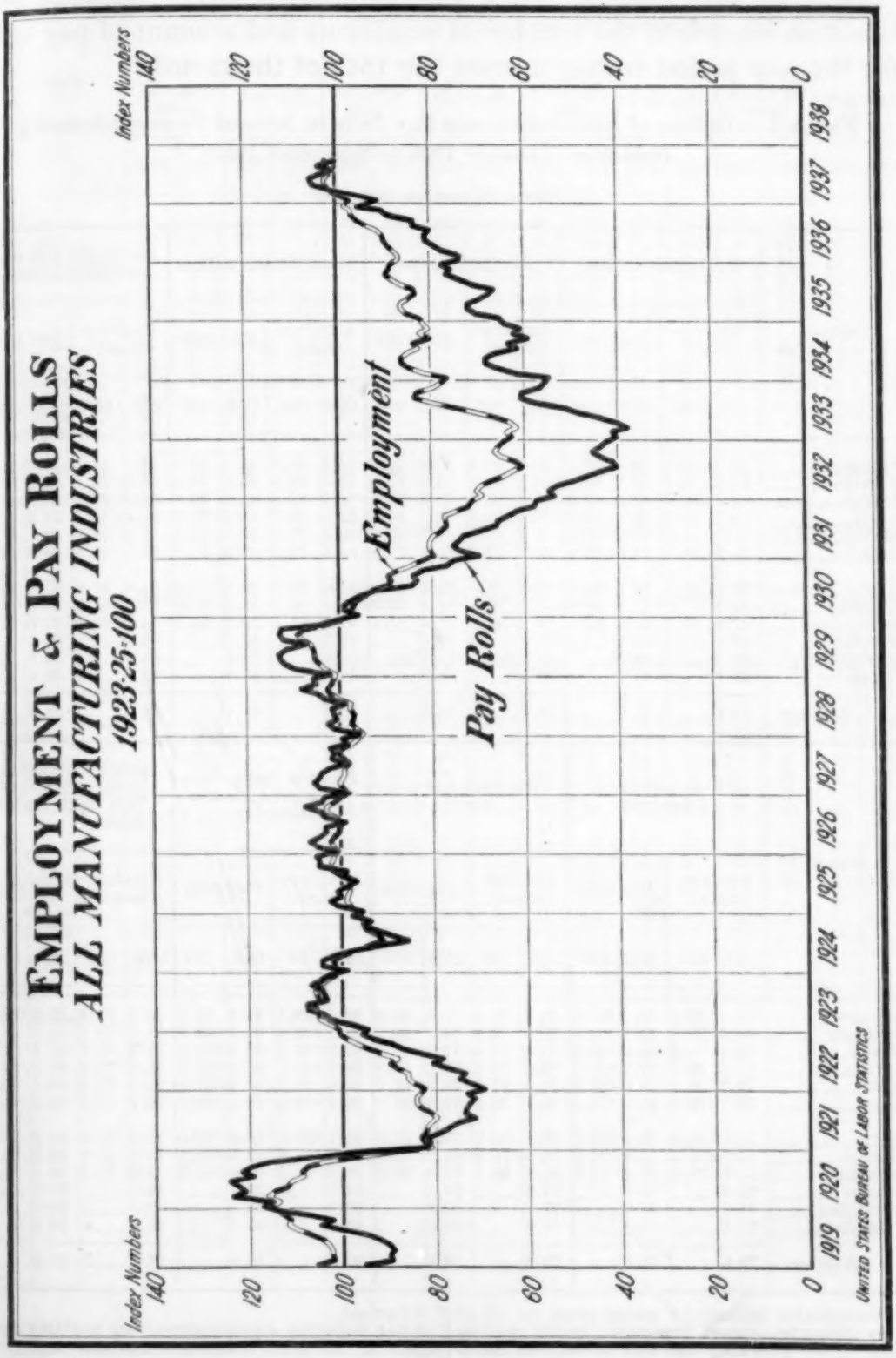
[1] Comparable indexes for earlier years will be found in the April 1937 issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

[2] Includes the following groups of manufacturing industries: Iron and steel; machinery; transportation equipment; railroad repair shops; nonferrous metals; lumber and allied products; and stone, clay, and glass products.

[3] Includes the following groups of manufacturing industries: Textiles and their products, leather and its manufactures, food and kindred products, tobacco manufactures, paper and printing, chemicals and allied products, products of petroleum and coal, rubber products, and a number of miscellaneous industries not included in other groups.

[4] Revised.

The indexes of nonmanufacturing industries are also computed from data supplied by reporting establishments, but the base is the 12-



month average for 1929 as 100. Figures for mining, laundries, dyeing and cleaning, and building construction cover wage earners only, but the figures for public utilities, trade, hotels, brokerage, and insurance

relate to all employees, including executives. For crude-petroleum producing they cover wage earners and clerical field force.

Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and amount of pay rolls for the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries, January 1936 to September 1937*[1]

[12-month average 1929=100]

Month	Anthracite mining				Bituminous coal				Metalliferous mining				Quarrying and nonmetallic mining			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	59.1	54.1	54.4	42.7	79.8	84.6	70.6	79.9	54.2	66.8	41.7	58.4	39.4	45.7	25.5	34.6
February	61.2	52.7	76.7	41.0	80.2	84.8	78.4	82.4	55.5	69.6	42.8	63.4	36.9	46.7	23.9	37.8
March	52.5	48.9	42.6	37.8	80.4	85.9	70.2	88.4	55.9	73.1	45.1	70.6	42.2	49.1	30.9	41.3
April	49.8	54.0	28.6	63.9	77.5	72.6	62.6	54.4	57.5	76.2	45.5	76.9	48.4	53.1	36.1	48.1
May	54.9	51.0	56.3	44.4	76.2	77.8	62.2	67.8	60.8	78.5	47.7	79.8	52.0	54.9	42.1	51.4
June	51.2	51.1	42.0	50.9	75.7	77.9	61.5	71.2	61.9	79.5	48.2	77.7	53.5	55.4	44.0	52.6
July	48.4	45.0	37.2	35.2	75.5	75.8	62.6	66.4	61.3	82.0	46.1	77.8	54.4	55.5	43.9	50.8
August	41.1	41.2	31.4	27.2	76.9	78.8	65.4	73.8	61.6	83.4	48.2	83.0	55.3	54.9	46.2	[2]53.2
September	47.6	48.2	34.9	31.5	78.2	80.5	71.0	77.7	63.1	84.1	50.0	82.2	54.9	54.7	44.8	50.1
October	49.9	-----	48.5	-----	81.1	-----	79.2	-----	64.2	-----	53.7	-----	54.6	-----	46.2	-----
November	51.5	-----	40.3	-----	82.3	-----	80.7	-----	62.9	-----	54.6	-----	52.6	-----	43.5	-----
December	54.8	-----	55.4	-----	83.9	-----	85.0	-----	64.4	-----	57.7	-----	49.4	-----	39.4	-----
Average	51.8	-----	45.7	-----	79.0	-----	70.8	-----	60.3	-----	48.4	-----	49.5	-----	38.9	-----

Month	Crude-petroleum producing				Telephone and telegraph				Electric light and power, and manufactured gas				Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance[3]			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	71.1	72.7	55.7	[2]61.2	70.1	74.4	75.0	83.6	86.1	92.1	84.8	92.3	70.7	72.5	65.0	68.0
February	70.8	73.5	55.7	[2]64.1	69.9	74.8	76.2	82.2	86.1	[2]92.2	84.7	[2]93.6	71.7	72.5	68.3	68.7
March	70.9	74.2	56.0	[2]63.9	70.2	75.4	77.2	87.2	86.8	[2]92.4	85.9	[2]94.8	71.2	72.6	67.8	69.2
April	71.3	75.8	57.1	[2]67.7	70.8	76.6	76.0	86.3	88.0	[2]93.1	86.2	[2]95.5	71.3	72.9	65.9	69.4
May	72.7	76.7	58.0	[2]68.2	71.6	77.7	78.5	89.5	89.0	[2]94.6	87.0	[2]97.9	71.5	73.3	66.1	70.1
June	73.7	[2]78.5	58.9	[2]70.4	72.1	78.5	77.4	88.6	90.4	[2]96.3	88.1	[2]100.4	71.7	73.3	66.8	71.1
July	75.4	[2]78.5	60.4	[2]70.5	73.1	79.7	79.9	92.1	91.7	[2]97.5	89.8	[2]102.2	72.4	73.4	66.5	70.8
August	75.0	[2]79.3	59.7	[2]70.8	73.5	79.8	81.2	92.1	93.1	[2]98.3	89.8	[2]102.6	72.4	73.4	66.5	73.1
September	74.5	78.3	60.4	71.2	73.7	80.1	78.8	93.1	93.5	98.5	91.4	103.8	72.8	73.7	66.4	71.6
October	73.6	-----	59.6	-----	73.8	-----	83.1	-----	94.0	-----	92.7	-----	73.1	-----	67.7	-----
November	73.2	-----	60.1	-----	73.7	-----	81.6	-----	93.5	-----	91.8	-----	73.0	-----	69.7	-----
December	72.4	-----	61.3	-----	73.6	-----	82.4	-----	93.2	-----	93.8	-----	72.5	-----	69.3	-----
Average	72.9	-----	58.6	-----	72.2	-----	78.9	-----	90.5	-----	88.8	-----	72.0	-----	67.2	-----

[1] Comparable indexes for earlier years for all of these industries, except year-round hotels, will be found in the February 1935 and subsequent issues of the Monthly Labor Review. Comparable indexes for year-round hotels will be found in the June 1935 issue of this pamphlet, or the September 1935 issue of the Monthly Labor Review

[2] Revised.

[3] Not including electric-railroad car building and repairing; see transportation equipment and railroad repair-shop groups, manufacturing industries, table 1.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries, January 1936 to September 1937*—Continued

Month	Wholesale trade				Total retail trade				Retail trade—general merchandising				Retail trade—other than general merchandising			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	85.6	90.7	66.6	72.6	80.4	85.4	62.1	68.0	88.2	95.1	76.4	83.8	78.4	82.9	59.1	64.7
February	85.0	92.0	66.6	74.1	79.7	85.2	61.6	67.9	85.1	93.9	73.9	82.9	78.3	82.9	59.1	64.8
March	85.6	92.1	69.0	75.0	81.9	88.5	63.5	70.5	90.9	100.3	77.3	87.6	79.5	85.4	60.7	67.0
April	85.7	91.9	67.9	75.4	85.2	88.8	65.3	71.9	97.4	99.6	81.0	89.1	82.0	86.0	62.1	68.3
May	84.6	90.8	68.2	76.1	85.0	89.9	65.8	73.5	95.5	102.1	80.8	91.5	82.3	86.7	62.7	69.8
June	84.6	90.3	68.4	76.3	85.5	90.5	66.4	74.4	96.4	102.9	81.3	92.5	82.6	87.2	63.3	70.6
July	85.4	90.6	69.0	76.9	83.2	87.6	65.1	72.8	90.7	95.9	77.3	87.3	81.2	85.4	62.6	69.8
August	86.3	91.8	69.7	79.0	82.4	86.2	64.4	72.3	89.4	93.8	76.4	[2]85.7	80.5	84.2	61.9	69.5
September	88.0	93.0	70.5	78.3	86.6	90.6	66.6	74.5	98.5	103.6	82.8	92.6	83.5	87.2	63.3	70.7
October	89.0	-----	71.5	-----	88.7	-----	68.3	-----	103.9	-----	87.2	-----	84.7	-----	64.4	-----
November	89.7	-----	73.1	-----	90.1	-----	70.1	-----	109.3	-----	91.4	-----	85.1	-----	65.7	-----
December	91.0	-----	72.8	-----	99.6	-----	75.9	-----	143.4	-----	116.2	-----	88.1	-----	67.6	-----
Average	86.7	-----	69.4	-----	85.7	-----	66.3	-----	99.1	-----	83.5	-----	82.2	-----	62.7	-----

Month	Year-round hotels				Laundries				Dyeing and cleaning			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	81.9	85.5	64.9	70.4	81.5	88.5	68.3	76.4	71.5	76.8	51.6	55.6
February	82.8	86.4	66.5	72.5	81.2	88.6	67.8	76.3	70.3	76.2	49.0	54.6
March	82.8	86.9	66.0	72.7	82.1	88.7	69.9	77.5	74.7	81.1	56.4	61.7
April	83.2	88.4	66.3	74.5	83.2	88.5	70.9	78.5	81.8	84.9	64.1	68.8
May	84.1	87.7	67.0	73.6	85.5	90.3	75.6	81.4	87.3	88.6	72.2	73.9
June	83.9	86.9	66.6	74.0	87.2	93.5	75.8	85.5	87.5	92.1	69.2	79.2
July	83.3	86.1	66.0	73.3	90.5	95.2	79.0	86.9	85.5	86.0	64.8	68.0
August	83.2	86.8	66.1	74.4	89.6	94.2	76.7	86.0	83.5	84.9	63.2	69.0
September	84.2	88.1	67.5	76.1	89.6	93.7	76.6	84.4	86.7	86.7	66.1	72.8
October	85.4	-----	69.6	-----	87.6	-----	75.3	-----	86.5	-----	66.7	-----
November	84.6	-----	69.6	-----	87.0	-----	74.5	-----	81.3	-----	60.2	-----
December	84.0	-----	69.8	-----	87.6	-----	76.1	-----	77.7	-----	57.3	-----
Average	83.6	-----	67.2	-----	86.1	-----	73.9	-----	81.2	-----	61.7	-----

[2] Revised.

Building Operations

SUMMARY OF BUILDING CONSTRUCTION IN PRINCIPAL CITIES, OCTOBER 1937 [1]

MEASURED by the value of permits issued, building activity in October was lower than during the preceding month. Reports from 1,496 identical cities with a population of 2,500 or more showed a decrease of 3.7 percent for all construction. An increase of 22.0 percent in new nonresidential construction was offset by decreases of 15.6 and 19.7 percent in new residential construction and in additions, alterations, and repairs, respectively.

Compared with October a year ago there was a drop in the level of permit valuations of 4.9 percent. The value of residential buildings for which permits were issued in October 1937 declined 27.4 percent and additions, alterations, and repairs fell 15.7 percent. New nonresidential construction, on the other hand, registered a gain of 40.2 percent.

Comparison of October 1937 with September 1937 and October 1936

A summary of building construction in 1,496 identical cities in October 1937, September 1937, and October 1936 is given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Building Construction in 1,496 Identical Cities, October 1937*

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Estimated cost		
	October 1937	Percentage change from—		October 1937	Percentage change from—	
		September 1937	October 1936		September 1937	October 1936
All construction	58,139	−9.5	−9.6	$123,646,053	−3.7	−4.9
New residential	9,267	−13.4	−19.6	45,141,689	−15.6	−27.4
New nonresidential	12,262	−1.5	−6.2	53,612,379	+22.0	+40.2
Additions, alterations, and repairs	36,610	−4.0	−7.8	24,891,985	−19.7	−15.7

A summary of the estimated cost of housekeeping dwellings and of the number of families provided for in new dwellings in 1,496 identical

[1] More detailed information by geographic divisions and individual cities is given in a separate pamphlet entitled "Building Construction, October 1937," copies of which will be furnished upon request.

cities, having a population of 2,500 and over, is shown in table 2 for the months of October 1937, September 1937, and October 1936.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Cost of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in 1,496 Identical Cities, October 1937*

Type of dwelling	Estimated cost of housekeeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in new dwellings		
	October 1937	Percentage change from—		October 1937	Percentage change from—	
		September 1937	October 1936		September 1937	October 1936
All types	$43,954,739	−15.3	−28.1	11,516	−12.3	−25.0
1-family	34,983,254	−15.4	−22.5	8,593	−12.8	−19.7
2-family [1]	2,015,011	−28.4	−20.6	809	−25.9	−8.5
Multifamily [2]	6,956,474	−9.7	−48.4	2,114	−3.1	−43.9

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores. [2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Analysis by Size of City, October 1937

Table 3 shows the estimated cost of building construction for which permits were issued in October 1937 compared with September 1937 and October 1936, by size of city and by class of construction.

TABLE 3.—*Estimated Cost of Building Construction for Which Permits Were Issued, by Size of City*

Size of city	Total construction			New residential buildings		
	Estimated cost, October 1937	Percentage change from—		Estimated cost, October 1937	Percentage change from—	
		September 1937	October 1936		September 1937	October 1936
Total, all cities	$123,646,053	−3.7	−4.9	$45,141,689	−15.6	−27.4
500,000 and over	49,999,705	+16.5	+13.1	13,575,817	−23.9	−34.5
100,000 and under 500,000	26,700,190	−3.7	−11.0	9,233,132	−11.0	−26.2
50,000 and under 100,000	11,324,574	−27.1	−18.7	5,015,169	+12.4	−32.0
25,000 and under 50,000	10,803,034	−8.9	−19.7	4,638,188	−7.2	−12.8
10,000 and under 25,000	14,178,488	−13.1	−11.6	6,818,246	−18.6	−23.9
5,000 and under 10,000	6,899,758	−31.1	−16.2	3,697,176	−25.0	−23.7
2,500 and under 5,000	3,740,304	−7.6	−8.7	2,163,961	−12.2	−11.7

Size of city	New nonresidential buildings			Additions, alterations, and repairs		
Total, all cities	$53,612,379	+22.0	+40.2	$24,891,985	−19.7	−15.7
500,000 and over	27,762,345	+91.9	+114.6	8,661,543	−18.3	−18.0
100,000 and under 500,000	11,395,845	+15.6	+5.6	6,071,213	−18.9	−9.3
50,000 and under 100,000	3,296,183	−47.2	+24.2	3,013,222	−37.5	−22.8
25,000 and under 50,000	3,813,830	−6.8	−19.0	2,351,016	−15.2	−31.4
10,000 and under 25,000	4,409,299	+1.7	+10.6	2,950,943	−18.0	−4.4
5,000 and under 10,000	1,822,840	−52.8	−12.9	1,379,742	+12.1	+6.8
2,500 and under 5,000	1,112,037	+3.4	+2.7	464,306	−8.5	−17.8

The estimated cost of housekeeping dwellings for which permits were issued in the 1,496 identical cities reporting for the months of September and October 1937, together with the number of family-dwelling units provided in new dwellings, by size of city, is given in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Estimated Cost of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in New Dwellings in 1,496 Identical Cities, by Size of City, October 1937*

Size of city	Estimated cost			Number of families provided for in—							
				All types		1-family dwellings		2-family dwellings[1]		Multi-family dwellings[2]	
	October 1937	September 1937	Percentage change	Oct. 1937	Sept. 1937	Oct. 1937	Sept. 1937	Oct. 1937	Sept. 1937	Oct. 1937	Sept. 1937
Total, all cities	$43,954,739	$51,869,462	−15.3	11,516	13,132	8,593	9,859	809	1,092	2,114	2,181
500,000 and over	13,482,817	17,703,169	−23.8	3,266	4,092	1,901	2,233	171	344	1,194	1,515
100,000 and under 500,000	9,231,132	9,813,356	−5.9	2,574	2,664	1,938	2,170	249	275	387	219
50,000 and under 100,000	4,151,819	4,436,724	−6.4	1,155	1,192	871	941	119	147	165	104
25,000 and under 50,000	4,613,188	4,945,505	−6.7	1,193	1,269	1,015	1,092	91	91	87	86
10,000 and under 25,000	6,773,246	8,090,231	−16.3	1,776	2,069	1,522	1,876	110	116	144	77
5,000 and under 10,000	3,538,576	4,457,936	−20.6	976	1,160	815	949	39	79	122	132
2,500 and under 5,000	2,163,961	2,422,541	−10.7	576	686	531	598	30	40	15	48

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores. [2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Dwelling Units Provided in the Entire Urban Area of the United States

Dwelling units were provided in new residential buildings for 167,216 families in the entire urban area of the United States during the first 9 months of 1937. This is an increase of 13.2 percent as compared with the corresponding period of 1936.

The estimates are based on reports received by the Bureau showing data on the value of building permits issued in approximately 1,500 cities. These cities had a population of about 59,000,000 in 1930. The entire urban area of the United States consists of 3,165 cities with an aggregate population in 1930 of 68,995,000.

From the above it will be seen that the cities reporting building permits to the Bureau included more than 85 percent of the total urban population of the United States. The Bureau receives reports from all cities of 50,000 population or over. The cities falling between 25,000 and 50,000 reporting to the Bureau include more than 90 percent of the total population of all cities in this size group, for cities of 10,000 to 25,000 the coverage was about 75 percent, for cities from 5,000 to 10,000 it was about 45 percent, and for cities of 2,500 to 5,000 it was approximately 35 percent.

The term "city," as used in this report, is synonymous with the census term "urban places," which is defined to mean in general

"cities or other incorporated places having a population of 2,500 or more."

The Bureau's figures for the first 9 months of the year show that there were gains in the total number of dwelling units provided in all city groups other than those having a population of half a million or more, as compared with the same period of last year. The rate of increase was much greater in the smaller than in the larger cities. The number of 1- and 2-family dwellings both show substantial increases. The number of family accommodations in apartment houses, however, decreased 10.1 percent. This was caused by a decline in the number of apartment-house units provided in cities having a population of 100,000 or over.

Except for the 14 cities having a population of over half a million, all city size groups provided more family dwelling units in 1-family dwellings than in apartment houses. Even in the cities having a population of over half a million, there was a decline in the percentage of families provided for in apartment houses. During the first 9 months of 1936, nearly 60 percent of all new dwelling units were in apartment houses in the 14 largest cities, while during the same period of the current year, slightly more than 50 percent were in this type of structure.

Table 5 shows estimates of the total volume of building construction in the urban area of the United States, by type of dwelling and by size of city, for the first 9 months of 1937 compared with the corresponding period of 1936.

TABLE 5.—*Estimated Number of Family Dwelling Units Provided by New Construction in Urban Areas First 9 Months of 1936 and 1937, by Size of City*

Size of city	All types		1-family dwellings		2-family dwellings [1]		Multifamily dwellings [2]	
	First 9 months of—		First 9 months of—		First 9 months of—		First 9 months of—	
	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936
500,000 and over	51,374	51,374	22,467	20,453	2,205	1,632	26,702	29,289
100,000 and under 500,000	27,763	25,505	21,246	16,432	2,381	1,580	4,136	7,493
50,000 and under 100,000	12,646	9,778	9,514	7,642	1,221	871	1,911	1,265
25,000 and under 50,000	13,840	11,752	11,805	9,569	1,063	864	972	1,319
10,000 and under 25,000	27,292	20,919	23,703	18,323	1,582	1,271	2,007	1,325
5,000 and under 10,000	18,506	16,004	15,548	13,508	1,128	1,114	1,830	1,582
2,500 and under 5,000	15,795	12,334	13,800	10,984	1,039	785	956	565
Total	167,216	147,666	118,083	96,711	10,619	8,117	38,514	42,838
Percentage change from first 9 months of 1936	+13.2		+22.1		+30.8		−10.1	

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Construction During 10 Months, 1936 and 1937

Cumulative totals for the first 10 months of 1937 compared with the same months of the preceding year are shown in table 6. The data are based on reports received from cities having a population of 2,500 and over.

TABLE 6.—*Estimated Cost of Building Construction, Cities of 2,500 Population and Over, First 10 Months, 1936 and 1937, by Class of Construction*

Class of construction	Estimated cost of building construction		
	First 10 months of—		Percentage change
	1937	1936	
All construction	$1,394,557,863	$1,248,883,697	+11.7
New residential	622,507,821	576,479,572	+8.0
New nonresidential	459,204,860	403,629,598	+13.8
Additions, alterations, and repairs	312,845,182	268,774,527	+16.4

The information on building permits issued October 1937, September 1937, and October 1936 is based on reports received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from 1,496 identical cities having a population of 2,500 and over.

The information is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics direct from local building officials, except in the States of Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, and Pennsylvania, where the State departments of labor collect and forward the information to the Bureau. The cost figures shown in this report are estimates made by prospective builders on applying for permits to build. No land costs are included. Only building projects within the corporate limits of the cities enumerated are included in the Bureau's tabulation. In addition to permits issued for private building construction, the statistics include the value of contracts for Federal and State buildings in the cities covered. Information concerning public building is collected by the Bureau from various Federal and State agencies having the power to award contracts for building construction. These data are then added to the data concerning private construction received from local building officials. In October 1937 the value of Federal and State buildings for which contracts were awarded in these 1,496 cities amounted to $3,020,000; in September 1937, to $12,343,000; and in October 1936, to $9,943,000.

Construction From Public Funds

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during October 1937, September 1937, and October 1936 on construction projects financed from various Federal funds is shown in table 7.

TABLE 7.—*Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Projects Financed From Federal Funds, September and October 1937 and October 1936* [1]

Federal agency	Value of contracts awarded and force-account work started—		
	October 1937	September 1937 [2]	October 1936 [2]
Total	$68,082,592	$73,687,302	[3] $129,595,543
Public Works Administration:			
Federal	944,766	713,238	2,739,838
Non-Federal:			
N. I. R. A.	1,461,645	2,978,408	5,672,113
E. R. A. A.	7,408,595	11,977,093	[3] 32,157,363
Federal projects under The Works Program	2,088,316	9,826,726	42,016,573
Regular Federal appropriations	55,521,270	48,191,837	43,9[illegible]9,656

[1] Preliminary, subject to revision.
[2] Revised.
[3] Revised; includes $1,569,727 low-cost housing projects (Housing Division, P. W. A.).

The value of public-building and highway construction awards financed wholly from appropriations from State funds, as reported by the various State governments for October 1937, September 1937, and October 1936 is shown in table 8.

TABLE 8.—*Value of Public-Building and Highway-Construction Awards Financed Wholly From State Funds*

Type of project	Value of contracts		
	October 1937	September 1937	October 1936
Public building	$2,[illegible]28,097	$2,332,117	$[illegible]6,042
Highway construction	8,992,314	10,453,119	11,322,816

Retail Prices

SUMMARY

Food, Coal, Tobacco Products

FOOD COSTS were lower in October than in September. A sharp drop in meat prices and lower prices for fruits and vegetables were the chief factors in the 1.1-percent decline for all foods. Forty-four of the fifty-one reporting cities showed decreased food costs. Retail prices of coal increased about 2.5 percent between June and September. Compared with the level of 1 year ago, bituminous-coal prices have advanced 3 percent, while anthracite prices are approximately 6 percent lower. From time to time, the Bureau publishes retail prices of tobacco products. This report shows changes in the prices of five tobacco items for specified dates from March 1935 through September 1937.

FOOD

Prices in October 1937

RETAIL FOOD COSTS averaged lower in October than in the preceding month largely because of a drop in meat prices and a continued decline in prices of fruits and vegetables. The composite index was 1.1 percent below that for September. The decrease was general throughout the country. Of the 51 cities reporting food prices to the Bureau, 44 showed lower costs.

The food cost index for October 12 was 84.9 percent of the 1923–25 average. This is 2.5 percent above the level of 1 year ago. The advance over last year was chiefly due to the fact that current meat costs are 14.9 percent higher than those of October 1936. Food costs in October were 28.0 percent higher than the level of October 1932, when the index was 66.3 percent. Compared with October 1929, costs in the current month were 21.1 percent lower. The cost of each of the commodity groups was considerably below that of October 1929.

NOTE.—All percentage figures referred to in this report are based on prices and indexes computed to three decimal places.

DETAILS BY COMMODITY GROUPS

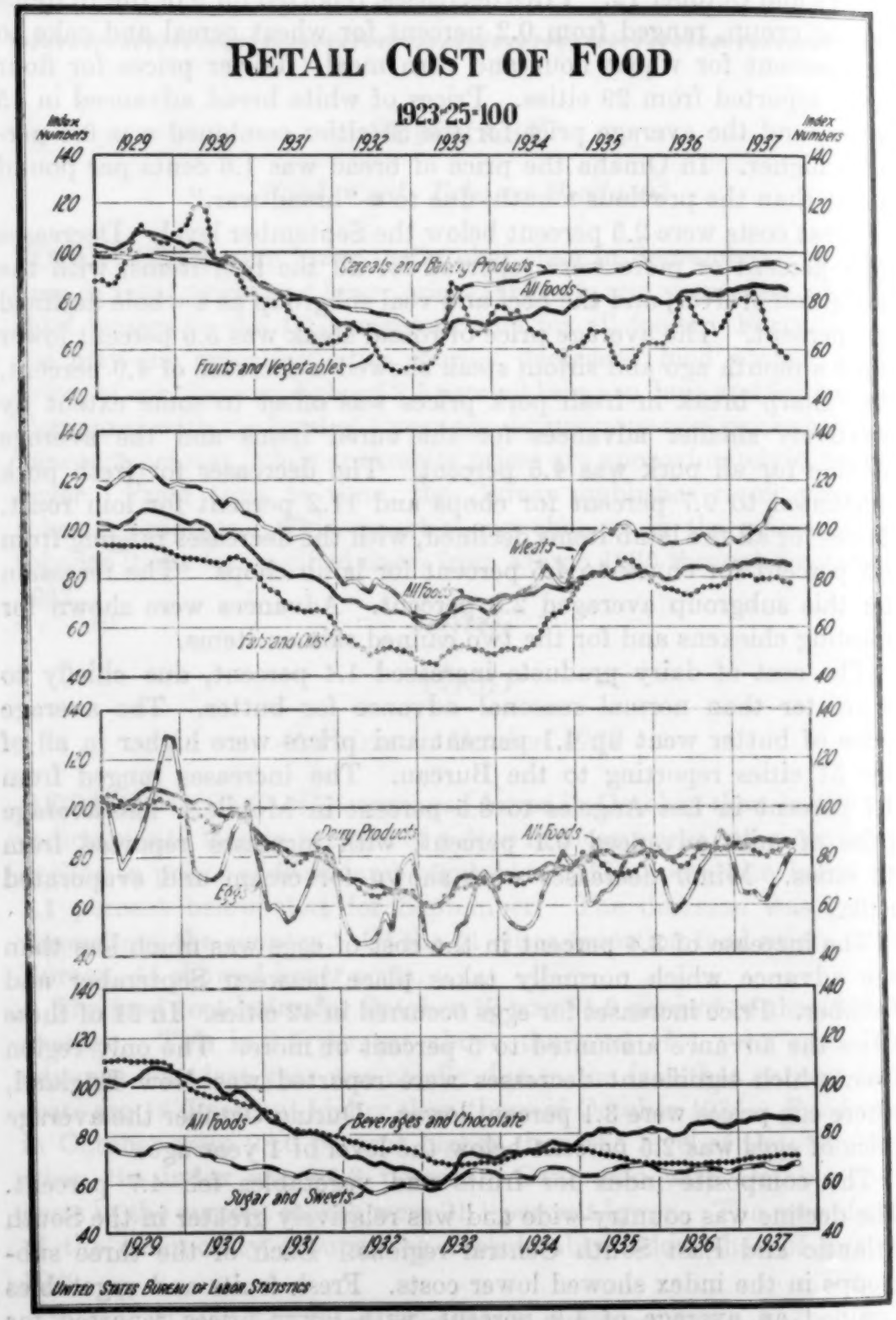
Cereals and bakery products declined 0.4 percent between September 14 and October 12. Price decreases, reported for 9 of the 13 items in the group, ranged from 0.2 percent for wheat cereal and cake to 1.9 percent for wheat flour and corn meal. Lower prices for flour were reported from 29 cities. Prices of white bread advanced in 15 cities, and the average price for the 51 cities combined was 0.3 percent higher. In Omaha the price of bread was 1.6 cents per pound lower than the previous month, due to a "bread war."

Meat costs were 2.3 percent below the September level. Decreases of 1 percent or more were reported for all the beef items, with the exception of liver, and the beef and veal subgroup as a whole declined 2.1 percent. The average price of round steak was 5.0 percent lower than a month ago and sirloin steak showed a decrease of 4.9 percent. The sharp break in fresh pork prices was offset to some extent by relatively smaller advances for the cured items and the average decline for all pork was 4.5 percent. The decreases for fresh pork amounted to 9.7 percent for chops and 11.2 percent for loin roast. Prices for all the lamb items declined, with the decreases ranging from 0.8 percent for chuck to 4.5 percent for lamb chops. The recession for this subgroup averaged 2.8 percent. Advances were shown for roasting chickens and for the two canned salmon items.

The cost of dairy products increased 1.4 percent, due chiefly to a greater than normal seasonal advance for butter. The average price of butter went up 4.1 percent and prices were higher in all of the 51 cities reporting to the Bureau. The increases ranged from 1.7 percent in Los Angeles to 8.5 percent in Mobile. The average price of milk advanced 0.1 percent, with increases reported from 15 cities. Minor decreases were shown for cream and evaporated milk.

The increase of 3.4 percent in the cost of eggs was much less than the advance which normally takes place between September and October. Price increases for eggs occurred in 42 cities. In 21 of these cities the advance amounted to 5 percent or more. The only region from which significant decreases were reported was New England, where egg prices were 3.1 percent lower. During October the average price of eggs was 2.5 percent below the level of 1 year ago.

The composite index for fruits and vegetables fell 4.7 percent. The decline was country-wide and was relatively greater in the South Atlantic and East South Central regions. Each of the three subgroups in the index showed lower costs. Fresh fruits and vegetables declined an average of 4.9 percent, with lower prices reported for 12 of the 13 items. The decreases were most marked for lettuce, spinach, and sweetpotatoes. Apples and potatoes, which have a


RETAIL COST OF FOOD
1923-25=100
Index Numbers
1929
1930
1931
1932
1933
1934
1935
1936
1937
140
120
100
80
60
40
Cereals and Bakery Products
All Foods
Fruits and Vegetables
Meats
All Foods
Fats and Oils
Dairy Products
All Foods
Eggs
All Foods
Beverages and Chocolate
Sugar and Sweets
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

significant influence on the movement of the index for the group, declined 6.6 and 1.6 percent respectively. Canned fruits and vegetables were 1.2 percent lower than a month ago, due chiefly to a decline of 3.0 percent in the average price of canned corn and 1.8 percent for canned peas. The cost of dried fruits and vegetables fell 5.9 percent, reflecting a sharp drop in prices of navy beans. Navy bean prices are now at the level of a year ago.

The cost of beverages and chocolate was 0.2 percent below a month ago. Prices of coffee and cocoa declined 0.2 percent and 0.3 percent respectively. Tea was 0.1 percent higher, and chocolate increased 0.6 percent during the month. This is the only commodity group for which costs are lower than in October 1932. The average price of coffee, the most heavily weighted item in the group, was 12.7 percent below the price in October, 5 years ago.

The cost of fats and oils declined 1.2 percent. Prices were lower for five of the seven items in the group. The most significant decreases were 3.8 percent for lard compound, 2.4 percent for oleomargarine, and 2.1 percent for vegetable shortening. The average price of lard was slightly higher than on September 14.

The index for the sugar and sweets group was 1.3 percent higher than a month ago. Advances for granulated sugar were reported from 28 cities, and the average price for the 51 cities combined moved upward 1.7 percent. Increases shown for other items in the group were 0.3 percent for molasses and 1.5 percent for strawberry preserves. Corn sirup declined 0.4 percent.

Indexes of retail food costs for October and September 1937, together with corresponding indexes for October 1936, 1932, and 1929, are shown in table 1. The chart on page 1558 shows trends in the costs of all foods and of each major commodity group for the period from January 1929 to October 1937, inclusive.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 51 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *by Commodity Groups*

October and September 1937, and October 1936, 1932, and 1929

[1923–25=100]

Commodity group	1937		1936	1932	1929
	Oct. 12	Sept. 14	Oct. 13	Oct. 15	Oct. 15
All foods	84.9	85.8	82.8	66.3	107.6
Cereals and bakery products	94.7	95.1	92.3	73.9	98.4
Meats	108.8	111.4	94.7	73.1	121.6
Dairy products	85.1	83.9	82.5	65.4	103.5
Eggs	81.6	79.0	83.7	73.2	120.3
Fruits and vegetables	56.5	59.2	67.1	51.3	105.5
Fresh	53.5	56.3	65.6	49.7	106.1
Canned	81.0	82.0	81.7	68.5	95.2
Dried	67.9	72.2	66.9	53.2	108.4
Beverages and chocolate	70.3	70.4	67.8	74.5	110.1
Fats and oils	77.5	78.4	76.3	50.5	92.6
Sugar and sweets	67.4	66.5	64.8	58.9	76.5

[1] Aggregate costs of 42 foods in each city prior to Jan. 1, 1935, and of 84 foods since that date, weighted to represent total purchases, have been combined with the use of population weights.

Prices of 55 of the 84 items included in the index declined between September and October. The average prices for 28 items were higher than in September and for 1 there was no change. Compared with a year ago, prices of 57 foods advanced, with the largest relative increases shown for the meat items. Average prices of each of the 84 foods for 51 cities combined are shown in table 2 for October and September 1937, and for October 1936.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 84 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined* [1]

October and September 1937 and October 1936

[*Indicates the 42 foods included in indexes prior to Jan. 1, 1935]

Article		1937		1936
		Oct. 12	Sept. 14	Oct. 13
Cereals and bakery products:				
Cereals:		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
*Flour, wheat	pound	4.7	4.8	4.9
*Macaroni	do	15.2	15.4	15.2
*Wheat cereal	28-oz. package	24.5	24.6	24.3
*Corn flakes	8-oz. package	7.7	7.8	8.1
*Corn meal	pound	5.4	5.5	5.5
Hominy grits	24-oz. package	9.7	9.8	9.6
*Rice	pound	8.3	8.4	8.8
*Rolled oats	do	7.4	7.5	7.5
Bakery products:				
*Bread, white	do	8.9	8.9	8.2
Bread, whole wheat	do	9.8	9.8	9.3
Bread, rye	do	10.1	10.0	9.0
Cake	do	25.1	25.2	25.7
Soda crackers	do	17.6	17.6	18.4
Meats:				
Beef:				
*Sirloin steak	do	46.1	48.5	38.4
*Round steak	do	41.9	44.1	34.7
*Rib roast	do	36.1	37.0	29.3
*Chuck roast	do	28.3	28.6	22.5
*Plate	do	18.7	18.9	14.7
Liver	do	25.5	25.5	25.5
Veal:				
Cutlets	do	46.2	45.7	40.6
Pork:				
*Chops	do	37.2	41.2	35.9
Loin roast	do	31.2	35.1	29.6
*Bacon, sliced	do	45.5	44.9	40.6
Bacon, strip	do	38.3	37.9	35.0
*Ham, sliced	do	53.1	53.0	49.4
Ham, whole	do	32.7	33.2	31.7
Salt pork	do	27.0	26.7	23.8
Lamb:				
Breast	do	14.8	15.2	13.0
Chuck	do	24.7	24.9	22.0
*Leg	do	31.0	31.7	28.2
Rib chops	do	39.3	41.2	35.2
Poultry:				
*Roasting chickens	do	36.5	36.5	31.1
Fish:				
Salmon, pink	16-oz. can	13.9	13.6	13.1
*Salmon, red	do	26.8	26.4	25.1
Dairy products:				
*Butter	pound	42.3	40.7	40.2
*Cheese	do	29.4	29.0	29.6
Cream	½ pint	14.7	14.7	15.8
Milk, fresh (delivered and store) [2]	quart	12.5	12.5	12.2
*Milk, fresh (delivered)	do	12.7	12.7	12.4
*Milk, evaporated	14½-oz. can	7.6	7.6	7.9
*Eggs	dozen	42.1	40.7	43.6
Fruits and vegetables:				
Fresh:				
Apples	pound	4.3	4.6	5.6
*Bananas	do	6.3	6.3	6.2

[1] Prices for individual cities are combined with the use of population weights.

[2] Average prices of milk delivered by dairies and sold in grocery stores, weighted according to the relative proportion distributed by each method.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 84 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined*—Continued

October and September 1937 and October 1936—Continued

[* Indicates the 42 foods included in indexes prior to Jan. 1, 1935]

Article	1937		1936
	Oct. 12	Sept. 14	Oct. 13
Fruits and vegetables—Continued.			
Fresh—Continued.	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Lemons, dozen	34.5	36.1	30.2
*Oranges, do	44.9	45.6	37.8
Beans, green, pound	9.5	8.9	8.9
*Cabbage, do	3.0	3.1	3.5
Carrots, bunch	5.1	5.2	5.2
Celery, stalk	8.1	8.4	7.7
Lettuce, head	7.7	9.7	10.5
*Onions, pound	3.8	3.8	3.2
*Potatoes, do	1.9	1.9	2.9
Spinach, do	7.5	9.4	7.1
Sweetpotatoes, do	3.4	4.1	3.9
Canned:			
Peaches, No. 2½ can	19.7	19.6	18.3
Pears, do	21.9	21.8	22.2
Pineapple, do	23.1	23.2	22.5
Asparagus, No. 2 can	29.9	29.7	26.8
Beans, green, do	11.6	11.8	12.2
*Beans with pork, 16-oz. can	8.1	8.1	7.2
*Corn, No. 2 can	12.4	12.8	13.0
*Peas, do	15.7	16.0	16.4
*Tomatoes, do	9.1	9.1	9.6
Tomato soup, 10½-oz. can	7.9	8.0	8.1
Dried:			
Peaches, pound	16.9	17.0	17.5
*Prunes, do	10.5	10.7	10.1
*Raisins, 15-oz. package	10.3	10.3	9.9
Black-eyed peas, pound	9.0	9.6	9.5
Lima beans, do	10.7	11.5	11.7
*Navy beans, do	8.1	9.3	8.1
Beverages and chocolate:			
*Coffee, do	26.0	26.0	24.4
*Tea, do	73.0	72.9	70.7
Cocoa, 8-oz. can	10.2	10.2	10.3
Chocolate, 8-oz. package	16.6	16.5	16.2
Fats and oils:			
*Lard, pound	17.1	17.1	16.5
Lard compound, do	14.5	15.1	15.2
*Vegetable shortening, do	21.1	21.5	21.5
Salad oil, pint	25.1	25.2	25.2
Mayonnaise, ½ pint	17.6	17.5	16.8
*Oleomargarine, pound	17.9	18.4	18.6
Peanut butter, do	19.4	19.6	19.1
Sugar and sweets:			
*Sugar, do	5.8	5.7	5.6
Corn sirup, 24-oz. can	14.6	14.6	14.2
Molasses, 18-oz. can	14.5	14.5	14.5
Strawberry preserves, pound	22.4	22.1	20.5

DETAILS BY REGIONS AND CITIES

The average decrease of 1.1 percent in the retail cost of food was the result of widespread price decreases. Costs were lower in 44 of the 51 cities included in the index and each of the 9 regional areas showed a decline. Of the 10 additional cities not included in the index, 8 also showed a decline. The major factor in the decrease in each city was the sharp drop in prices of meats and fruits and vegetables.

The four cities showing the greatest decreases were: Richmond, 3.3 percent; Detroit, 3.2; Norfolk, 2.9; and Birmingham, 2.8. In Detroit the cost of meats dropped 9.6 percent. In the other three cities the declines for meats and fruits and vegetables were aug-

mented by substantial decreases in the prices of corn meal and wheat flour.

Higher food costs were reported for seven cities. In all of these cities meat and fruit and vegetable prices were either higher than on September 14 or showed a negligible decrease. The average increases amounted to one-half of 1 percent or less in all cities except Newark where food costs rose 1 percent. In Newark bread prices increased more than 1 percent.

Indexes of the retail cost of food, by cities and regions, are given in table 3 for October and September 1937, and for October of earlier years.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Regions and Cities* [1]

October and September 1937 and October 1936, 1935, 1933, 1932, and 1929

[1923-25=100]

Region and city	1937		1936	1935	1933	1932	1929
	Oct. 12	Sept. 14	Oct. 13	Oct. 8	Oct. 10	Oct. 15	Oct. 15
Average: 51 cities combined	84.9	85.8	82.8	79.9	71.6	66.3	107.6
New England	85.0	85.6	80.1	79.2	71.9	67.1	107.4
Boston	82.8	84.0	77.7	77.5	70.3	66.1	106.7
Bridgeport	90.1	90.9	84.9	84.9	75.7	71.2	107.4
Fall River	88.0	87.5	81.4	80.3	71.6	64.9	107.2
Manchester	84.5	86.0	82.2	80.1	72.4	65.3	105.8
New Haven	89.6	89.7	85.2	83.2	75.7	70.4	110.0
Portland, Maine	83.9	85.4	80.6	78.7	71.5	66.3	108.4
Providence	84.9	84.7	81.3	78.1	71.5	65.4	107.2
Middle Atlantic	86.1	86.7	83.0	80.6	73.1	68.9	108.0
Buffalo	83.0	82.7	81.4	78.5	71.0	65.9	108.0
Newark	89.5	88.7	84.5	82.9	74.7	71.9	107.2
New York	87.3	87.6	82.9	81.5	75.1	71.7	107.6
Philadelphia	87.2	88.2	85.4	80.7	72.8	68.5	108.9
Pittsburgh	83.6	84.9	80.5	78.7	69.1	64.2	108.2
Rochester	83.8	84.5	83.3	79.2	71.3	63.5	106.9
Scranton	79.7	81.2	79.7	77.0	70.9	64.8	109.8
East North Central	85.0	86.4	83.8	80.0	70.4	64.3	108.6
Chicago	86.5	87.6	83.9	80.1	69.8	69.0	109.3
Cincinnati	85.6	87.2	87.0	83.4	73.4	63.1	112.9
Cleveland	84.3	84.9	84.1	79.0	70.7	62.1	106.2
Columbus, Ohio	83.3	83.5	85.7	82.2	72.8	62.9	108.3
Detroit	83.7	86.4	82.4	79.2	69.6	58.2	107.0
Indianapolis	83.6	84.7	84.1	78.2	70.1	63.4	111.6
Milwaukee	88.5	89.9	86.4	81.7	71.8	67.7	110.3
Peoria	83.8	84.9	83.5	80.9	70.1	63.8	108.3
Springfield, Ill	81.6	83.0	82.7	78.2	68.5	61.7	107.1
West North Central	85.7	87.2	86.6	81.9	71.5	64.9	108.2
Kansas City	85.0	87.0	86.5	80.9	71.1	67.2	108.4
Minneapolis	87.7	88.0	89.4	82.7	73.4	65.7	109.8
Omaha	80.8	82.6	82.8	80.9	68.4	62.5	104.4
St. Louis	88.2	90.1	87.6	83.0	72.5	64.5	109.5
St. Paul	83.4	83.3	85.4	80.2	70.8	63.4	107.3
South Atlantic	83.4	84.8	82.7	80.9	71.5	65.2	107.2
Atlanta	81.2	82.4	80.5	78.4	68.4	61.1	107.9
Baltimore	87.4	88.8	85.7	83.8	74.2	67.0	107.2
Charleston, S. C	85.6	85.8	84.3	81.6	70.7	65.5	106.0
Jacksonville	81.9	81.6	80.1	78.4	67.0	62.4	102.8
Norfolk	81.0	83.5	83.6	79.7	71.9	67.6	112.1
Richmond	77.9	80.5	79.6	77.6	69.3	62.7	104.6
Savannah	84.2	85.2	83.9	81.7	71.1	64.6	109.3
Washington, D. C	86.3	87.7	84.4	84.5	74.6	68.4	108.6

[1] Aggregate costs of 42 foods in each city prior to January 1, 1935, and of 84 foods since that date, weighted to represent total purchases, have been combined for regions and for the United States with the use of population weights.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Regions and Cities*—Con.

October and September 1937 and October 1936, 1935, 1933, 1932, and 1929—Con.

[1923–25=100]

Region and city	1937		1936	1935	1933	1932	1929
	Oct. 12	Sept. 14	Oct. 13	Oct. 8	Oct. 10	Oct. 15	Oct. 15
East South Central	79.7	81.3	80.4	77.5	[1] 68.0	61.0	106.1
Birmingham	76.0	78.2	77.0	74.1	64.3	59.2	103.2
Louisville	88.0	89.1	88.1	86.6	[1] 74.4	63.3	112.3
Memphis	80.9	81.2	81.7	76.2	70.7	63.6	106.1
Mobile	79.9	80.9	77.4	76.2	66.7	62.4	104.3
West South Central	82.8	83.3	83.0	79.0	68.8	63.2	104.9
Dallas	81.0	81.5	81.5	78.8	67.9	63.0	106.0
Houston	82.5	82.6	82.6	77.5	66.8	60.3	102.9
Little Rock	80.4	81.0	82.0	77.0	66.6	61.9	109.0
New Orleans	86.2	87.3	85.7	82.8	73.5	67.9	105.3
Mountain	87.0	87.3	86.4	82.4	[1] 70.2	65.1	104.7
Butte	82.4	83.0	82.0	76.5	64.3	62.6	107.1
Denver	89.2	89.7	90.0	85.4	72.2	67.0	104.2
Salt Lake City	84.2	84.3	81.1	79.4	[1] 68.5	62.4	104.7
Pacific	82.1	82.6	80.5	75.8	[1] 71.8	65.8	105.5
Los Angeles	77.6	78.8	77.0	71.6	[1] 70.3	61.4	104.0
Portland, Oreg.	85.0	85.6	81.1	76.4	67.6	66.2	106.3
San Francisco	86.2	85.8	84.3	80.5	[1] 75.2	71.2	107.3
Seattle	83.9	84.2	81.4	76.8	69.9	65.1	105.1

[1] Revised.

The Bureau collects prices in 11 cities that cannot be included in the food cost indexes, since no prices are available for the base period 1923–25. These cities were selected from areas formerly not adequately represented in the food price reporting service.

Average prices for each of these cities for which data were available have been released since June 1935. Consumption weights have been provided for these cities, making it possible to measure changes in food costs from one period to another. Percentage changes in food costs between September and October 1937 are shown in table 4 for 10 of these cities.

TABLE 4.—*Percentage Changes in Retail Food Costs for Specified Cities*

October 1937, Compared With September 1937

Region and city	Percentage change Oct. 12, 1937, compared with Sept. 14, 1937								
	All foods	Cereals and bakery products	Meats	Dairy products	Eggs	Fruits and vegetables	Beverages and chocolate	Fats and oils	Sugar and sweets
West North Central:									
Cedar Rapids	+1.2	−0.4	−2.8	−0.3	−3.6	+11.6	+1.0	−1.9	−1.1
Sioux Falls	−2.0	−.6	−2.2	+.6	+15.0	−10.2	+.9	−1.8	+.6
Wichita	−1.2	−.3	−.4	+1.7	+6.8	−7.3	+.4	−6.2	−2.0
South Atlantic:									
Columbia, S. C.	−11.8	−2.1	−3.7	+2.1	+14.0	−36.9	−.2	−4.5	+.7
Winston-Salem	−1.9	−.4	+.9	+.9	+.5	−8.8	0	−1.9	+1.0
East South Central:									
Jackson	−2.8	−3.9	+.6	+.9	+2.8	−9.6	−4.6	+.6	−.1
Knoxville	+2.1	−1.7	−1.5	+2.5	+8.3	+9.2	+1.0	+.4	−2.6
West South Central:									
El Paso	−.2	+.2	−2.0	+1.8	+.5	−.6	+.7	−.4	+.3
Oklahoma City	−.4	−.1	+.1	+2.4	+15.5	−7.5	−.2	−1.6	+1.1
Pacific: Spokane	−.4	0	−.5	+1.6	−.2	−3.3	−.1	−.6	+.6

COAL

Prices in September 1937

RETAIL COAL PRICES made a seasonal advance of about 2.5 percent between June 15 and September 15, 1937. Bituminous-coal prices are now 88.5 percent of the October 1922 to September 1925 average, while Pennsylvania anthracite prices are 76.8 percent for the stove size and 78.2 percent for chestnut.

The average price of bituminous coal in 38 cities combined increased 2.5 percent, during the 3-month period ended September 15. The current level of these prices is 3.0 percent above the average for the corresponding period in 1936.

From June to September 1937, the weighted average price of Pennsylvania anthracite in 25 cities combined advanced 3.0 percent for both the stove and chestnut sizes and 2.8 percent for the pea size. At the same time the average price of buckwheat size rose 0.8 percent. Current prices for the stove size average 7.5 percent below the level for the corresponding period last year. Between the same periods the average price of both chestnut and pea-size anthracite declined 5.6 percent.

Retail coal prices are collected each quarter from representative dealers in 51 cities throughout the United States. These quotations are based on the cash delivered price in 1-ton lots of the grades and sizes of coal which predominate in sales to household users in each city. The price series for bituminous coal covers 38 cities, 14 of which report on low volatile or smokeless coal as well as high volatile. The Pennsylvania anthracite series includes 25 cities, and 6 western cities report prices for anthracite other than Pennsylvania.

Combined average retail prices of bituminous coal in 38 cities and Pennsylvania anthracite in 25 cities of the United States are presented in table 5 for September and June 1937 and September 1936.

TABLE 5.—*Average Retail Prices of Coal in Large Cities Combined September and June 1937, and September 1936*

Article	Average retail price per ton of 2,000 pounds			Index of retail price, October 1922–September 1925=100			Percentage change, September 15, 1937, compared with—	
	1937		1936	1937		1936	1937	1936
	Sept. 15	June 15	Sept. 15	Sept. 15	June 15	Sept. 15	June 15	Sept. 15
Bituminous coal (38 cities)	$8.60	$8.39	[1] $8.35	88.5	[1] 86.4	85.9	+2.5	+3.0
Pennsylvania anthracite (25 cities), new series: [2]								
Stove	10.80	10.49	11.68	76.8	74.5	83.0	+3.0	−7.5
Chestnut	10.98	10.66	[1] 11.63	78.2	[1] 75.9	82.8	+3.0	−5.6
Pea	9.08	8.83	[1] 9.63	----------	----------	----------	+2.8	−5.6
Buckwheat	7.66	7.60	[3]	----------	----------	----------	+.8	----------

[1] Revised.
[2] Weighted on the basis of the distribution by rail or rail and tidewater to each city during the 12-month period from Aug. 1, 1935, to July 31, 1936.
[3] Insufficient data.

DETAILS BY REGIONS AND CITIES

Bituminous coal.—Between June 15 and September 15, the retail price of high volatile bituminous coal advanced in 25 of the 36 cities which report on this grade. In the remaining 11 cities, prices either continued at the same level or declined slightly. Prepared sizes of low volatile or smokeless bituminous coal advanced in each of the 14 reporting cities with the exception of Detroit, where prices continued at the same level for the sized grades of both the low and high volatile coal. Low volatile run-of-mine coal rose in six of the seven cities for which these prices are published. Norfolk, the city reporting no price change for this coal, was also one of the cities with no change in its high volatile prices.

A comparison of the 1937 and the 1936 averages for bituminous coal indicates that high volatile prices are higher in 27 cities and lower in 8. While the low volatile prices for prepared sizes have risen above the level of a year ago in six cities, they have dropped below that level in five other cities. Low volatile run-of-mine prices have advanced in five cities and declined in one.

Average retail prices in each of the 38 cities for September and June 1937 and September 1936 are shown in table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Average Retail Prices of Bituminous Coal per Ton of 2,000 Pounds, by Cities*

September and June 1937, and September 1936

Region, city, and grade and size of coal	1937		1936
	Sept. 15	June 15	Sept. 15
Middle Atlantic:			
Pittsburgh:			
Prepared sizes	$4.82	$4.61	[1] $4.89
East North Central:			
Chicago: [2]			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	8.95	[1] 8.47	[1] 8.52
Low volatile	11.34	[1] 10.65	[1] 11.05
Run of mine:			
Low volatile	8.81	[1] 8.56	[1] 8.40
Cincinnati: [2]			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	6.16	6.07	6.07
Low volatile	8.00	7.91	7.98
Cleveland: [2]			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	7.35	7.23	6.76
Low volatile	9.30	8.84	9.50
Columbus: [2]			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	6.24	6.02	6.26
Low volatile	7.65	7.60	7.95
Detroit: [2]			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	6.98	6.98	7.06
Low volatile	8.36	8.36	8.27
Run of mine: Low volatile	7.60	7.47	7.34
East North Central—Continued.			
Indianapolis:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	$6.23	$6.23	$5.84
Low volatile	8.06	7.88	8.20
Run of mine: Low volatile	7.31	7.18	7.14
Milwaukee:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	8.70	8.42	8.53
Low volatile	11.33	10.59	11.00
Peoria: [2] Prepared sizes	7.21	7.16	[1] 7.33
Springfield, Ill.: [2] Prepared sizes	4.92	4.19	[1] 3.96
West North Central:			
Kansas City: [2] Prepared sizes	6.31	6.12	5.82
Minneapolis:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	10.89	10.86	10.68
Low volatile	13.26	13.18	13.74
Omaha: Prepared sizes	9.14	9.00	8.80
St. Louis: [2] Prepared sizes	5.64	[1] 5.40	[1] 5.48
St. Paul:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	10.73	10.69	10.50
Low volatile	13.20	13.06	13.71

[1] Revised to include only 1-ton lot prices.
[2] Prices include 3-percent sales tax.
[3] Prices include 2-percent sales tax for June and September 1937 and 1-percent for September 1936.

TABLE 6.—*Average Retail Prices of Bituminous Coal per Ton of 2,000 Pounds, by Cities*—Continued

September and June 1937, and September 1936—Continued

Region, city, and grade and size of coal	1937		1936
	Sept. 15	June 15	Sept. 15
South Atlantic:			
Atlanta: Prepared sizes	$7.14	$6.39	$6.89
Baltimore:			
Prepared sizes: Low volatile	8.94	8.56	8.94
Run of mine: Low volatile	7.14	7.11	7.18
Charleston, S. C.: Prepared sizes	9.33	9.33	9.33
Jacksonville: Prepared sizes	10.67	10.25	10.63
Norfolk:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	7.50	7.50	7.50
Low volatile	9.00	8.75	9.00
Run of mine: Low volatile	7.50	7.50	7.50
Richmond:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	8.08	7.58	7.50
Low volatile	8.90	8.51	8.73
Run of mine: Low volatile	7.61	7.25	7.35
Savannah: [4] Prepared sizes	9.50	9.45	9.20
Washington, D. C.: [5]			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	8.50	8.25	8.92
Low volatile	10.56	10.22	10.56
Run of mine: Low volatile	8.19	8.13	8.00
East South Central:			
Birmingham: [6] Prepared sizes	$6.30	$6.02	$6.23
Louisville:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	5.67	5.64	5.71
Low volatile	8.25	7.88	8.00
Memphis: Prepared sizes	7.50	7.51	6.88
Mobile: [6] Prepared sizes	8.93	8.45	8.56
West South Central:			
Dallas: Prepared sizes	10.21	10.29	10.29
Houston: Prepared sizes	10.92	10.93	11.57
Little Rock: Prepared sizes	8.72	(7)	7.94
New Orleans: [8] Prepared sizes	10.05	10.05	9.60
Mountain:			
Butte: Prepared sizes	10.54	10.62	[1] 10.12
Denver: [9] Prepared sizes	7.79	7.71	7.43
Salt Lake City: [9] Prepared sizes	7.16	7.22	6.32
Pacific:			
Los Angeles: Prepared sizes	17.00	16.61	16.87
Portland, Oreg.: Prepared sizes	13.04	12.43	12.05
San Francisco: Prepared sizes	15.97	16.06	15.28
Seattle: [9] Prepared sizes	10.56	10.46	[1] 10.18

[1] Revised to include only 1-ton lot prices.
[4] Prices include municipal weighing charge of 10 cents per ton.
[5] Prices on ton of 2,240 pounds.
[6] Prices include 2-percent sales tax for June and September 1937.
[7] No data.
[8] Prices include 4-percent sales tax for June and September 1937.
[9] Prices include 2-percent sales tax.

Anthracite.—During the 3-month interval ended September 15, 1937, the price of Pennsylvania anthracite advanced in practically all of the 25 reporting cities. Detroit showed a slight decline for both the stove and chestnut sizes, while the Pittsburgh price for stove-size anthracite did not change. Quotations on buckwheat size are received from 21 cities, of which 11 reported higher, and 4 lower prices.

Current prices for Pennsylvania anthracite stove and chestnut sizes are significantly lower than they were for September 1936 in 21 of the 25 cities. Reductions of 10 percent or more were reported for both New York and Baltimore. Prices advanced only in cities that are relatively unimportant as markets for anthracite. Between the two Septembers the price of pea coal declined in 14 of the 23 cities which report on this size.

Price comparisons for western anthracite in September 1937 can be made only on the basis of prices for the corresponding period in 1936, since quotations for June were not available in most of the cities. Western anthracite prices advanced between September of 1936 and

1937 in Kansas City and Little Rock and did not change in Dallas and San Francisco.

Average retail prices of anthracite in each of the reporting cities for September and June 1937 and September 1936, are shown in table 7.

TABLE 7.—*Average Retail Prices of Anthracite per Ton of 2,000 Pounds, by Cities September and June 1937, and September 1936*

PENNSYLVANIA ANTHRACITE

Region, city, and size of coal	1937		1936
	Sept. 15	June 15	Sept. 15
New England:			
Boston:			
Stove	$12.17	$12.00	$13.00
Chestnut	12.17	12.00	13.00
Pea	10.92	10.75	11.30
Buckwheat	9.58	9.53	--------
Bridgeport:			
Stove	11.90	11.50	12.25
Chestnut	11.90	11.50	12.25
Pea	10.90	10.50	11.00
Buckwheat	9.00	9.00	--------
Fall River:			
Stove	13.50	13.00	13.00
Chestnut	13.25	12.75	12.75
Pea	11.25	10.75	10.75
Buckwheat	10.00	10.00	--------
Manchester:			
Stove	13.75	13.50	14.50
Chestnut	13.75	13.50	14.50
Pea	12.69	12.50	12.83
Buckwheat	10.75	10.69	--------
New Haven:			
Stove	12.50	12.00	12.95
Chestnut	12.50	12.00	12.95
Pea	11.00	10.25	10.70
Buckwheat	9.25	9.25	--------
Portland, Maine:			
Stove	13.25	12.56	14.00
Chestnut	13.25	12.56	14.00
Pea	12.00	11.44	12.50
Buckwheat	10.50	10.50	--------
Providence:			
Stove	13.18	12.90	14.25
Chestnut	13.18	12.90	14.25
Pea	11.78	11.50	12.00
Buckwheat	10.00	10.00	--------
Middle Atlantic:			
Buffalo:			
Stove	11.75	11.25	12.35
Chestnut	11.75	11.25	12.30
Pea	10.00	9.50	10.20
Buckwheat	8.25	8.40	--------
Newark:			
Stove	11.06	10.50	11.75
Chestnut	11.06	10.50	11.50
Pea	9.81	9.21	9.75
Buckwheat	8.50	8.43	--------
New York: [1]			
Stove	10.62	10.37	11.80
Chestnut	10.62	10.37	11.71
Pea	9.14	8.90	9.84
Buckwheat	7.57	7.51	--------
Philadelphia:			
Stove	9.95	9.89	10.46
Chestnut	9.95	9.89	10.46
Pea	8.47	8.45	8.96
Buckwheat	7.68	7.69	--------
Pittsburgh:			
Stove	12.50	12.50	12.88
Chestnut	12.58	12.56	12.88
Rochester:			
Stove	11.60	11.08	11.93
Chestnut	11.60	11.08	11.85
Middle Atlantic—Con.			
Rochester—Contd.			
Pea	$10.06	$9.53	$9.99
Buckwheat	8.29	8.20	--------
Scranton:			
Stove	7.59	7.13	8.15
Chestnut	7.59	7.13	8.10
Pea	6.30	5.84	6.80
Buckwheat	4.90	4.90	--------
East North Central:			
Chicago: [2]			
Stove	14.71	14.03	[3] 14.83
Chestnut	14.71	14.03	[3] 14.75
Pea	13.41	12.73	[3] 13.46
Buckwheat	11.91	11.54	--------
Cleveland: [2]			
Stove	13.61	13.13	13.52
Chestnut	13.61	13.13	13.26
Detroit: [2]			
Stove	11.85	11.89	12.28
Chestnut	11.85	11.89	12.02
Pea	10.69	10.65	10.69
Milwaukee:			
Stove	13.95	12.95	13.77
Chestnut	13.95	12.95	13.68
Pea	12.70	11.71	12.60
Buckwheat	11.35	10.85	--------
West North Central:			
Minneapolis:			
Stove	15.43	15.05	15.70
Chestnut	15.43	15.05	15.60
Pea	14.18	13.80	14.50
Buckwheat	12.90	12.94	--------
St. Louis: [4]			
Stove	14.62	14.26	[3] 14.40
Chestnut	14.62	14.26	[3] 14.27
Pea	12.84	12.58	[3] 12.37
St. Paul:			
Stove	15.44	15.05	15.70
Chestnut	15.44	15.05	15.60
Pea	14.19	13.80	14.50
Buckwheat	12.90	12.94	--------
South Atlantic:			
Baltimore:			
Stove	10.14	9.45	11.50
Chestnut	10.14	9.45	11.25
Pea	8.69	7.95	9.50
Buckwheat	8.06	7.35	--------
Norfolk:			
Stove	12.13	11.75	12.50
Chestnut	12.13	11.75	12.50
Pea	10.50	10.25	10.50
Buckwheat	10.00	9.75	--------
Richmond:			
Stove	12.55	11.75	13.00
Chestnut	12.55	11.75	13.00
Pea	11.13	10.50	10.94
Buckwheat	9.88	9.25	--------
Washington, D. C.: [4]			
Stove	12.10	11.30	12.88
Chestnut	12.10	11.30	12.80
Pea	10.50	9.80	10.80
Buckwheat	8.90	8.80	--------

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 7.—*Average Retail Prices of Anthracite per Ton of 2,000 Pounds, by Cities*—Con.

September and June 1937, and September 1936—Continued

OTHER ANTHRACITE

Region, city, and size of coal	1937		1936	Region, city, and size of coal	1937		1936
	Sept. 15	June 15	Sept. 15		Sept. 15	June 15	Sept. 15
West North Central:				West South Central—Con.			
Kansas City: [4]				Little Rock:			
Arkansas, egg	$10.73	$10.20	$10.23	Arkansas, egg	$9.69	----	$8.75
West South Central:				Pacific:			
Dallas:				San Francisco: [5]			
Arkansas, egg	13.00	----	13.00	New Mexico, egg	23.69	$23.69	23.69

[1] Prices include 2-percent sales tax.
[2] Prices include 3-percent sales tax.
[3] Revised to include only 1-ton lot prices.
[4] Prices include 2-percent sales tax for June and September 1937 and 1-percent for September 1936.
[5] Prices on ton of 2,240 pounds.

TOBACCO PRODUCTS

Average Prices, March 1935 to September 1937, Inclusive

THE BUREAU of Labor Statistics collects retail prices of five tobacco products—cigarettes, cigars, cigarette tobacco, pipe tobacco, and plug tobacco—from stores in 32 cities in the United States.

Average prices of these products in the 32 cities combined were first published in the May 1936 issue of "Retail Prices." All periods for which prices were available from December 1920 through April 1936 were shown. Average prices through March 1937 were published in the March 1937 issue of this report.

Prices of the five tobacco products are presented in table 8 for all price-collection periods from March 1935 through September 1937.

TABLE 8.—*Average Retail Prices of Tobacco Products in 32 Large Cities Combined*

March 1935 to September 1937, Inclusive

Year and month	Cigarettes, medium priced, per pack of 20	Cigars, inexpensive, per cigar	Cigarette tobacco (⅞-2-oz. pkg. priced), per ounce	Pipe tobacco (1-2-oz. tin priced) per ounce	Plug tobacco (1-3½-oz. cut priced) per ounce
1935	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
March	13.2	4.9	5.7	6.6	6.4
July	13.2	4.7	5.7	6.5	6.4
October	13.3	4.6	5.7	6.4	6.4
1936					
January	13.2	4.5	5.6	6.4	6.4
April	13.2	4.5	5.7	6.6	6.3
July	13.2	4.5	5.6	6.6	6.3
September	13.2	4.5	5.6	6.6	6.3
December	13.3	4.6	5.6	6.6	6.3
1937					
March	13.7	4.6	5.6	6.5	6.3
June	13.8	4.6	5.7	6.6	6.3
September [2]	13.8	4.6	5.6	6.6	6.3

[1] Sales taxes are included wherever applicable. [2] Preliminary.

Wholesale Prices

WHOLESALE PRICES IN OCTOBER 1937

A GENERAL decline was recorded in wholesale commodity prices during October, and the all-commodity index fell 2.3 percent to the low point of the year. Sharp decreases in prices of farm products, foods, and textile products largely accounted for the recession.

The decline placed the all-commodity index at 85.4 percent of the 1926 average, the lowest level reached since December 1936.

Each of the 10 major commodity groups declined during the month. The decreases ranged from 0.1 percent for housefurnishing goods to 6.4 percent for farm products. Compared with the levels of a year ago, the farm products and chemicals and drugs groups are lower. The eight remaining groups—foods, hides and leather products, textile products, fuel and lighting materials, metals and metal products, building materials, housefurnishing goods, and miscellaneous commodities—are above their year-ago levels. The increases range from 2.2 percent for fuel and lighting materials to 11.6 percent for hides and leather products.

Wholesale market prices of raw materials reached the lowest point since July 1936. Semimanufactured articles fell sharply to a new low for 1937 but are higher than for October a year ago. Following a steady rise for the past 9 months, the finished products group has registered a decrease. Notwithstanding the recent decline, finished products prices are substantially above the year's low point and are higher than for October 1936.

The index for "All commodities other than farm products" fell sharply during the month. The group "All commodities other than farm products and foods" also declined. The index for the former classification, reflecting the movement in prices of nonagricultural commodities, as well as that for the latter, industrial commodities, is more than 6 percent above a year ago.

A comparison of the October level of wholesale commodity prices with September 1937 and October 1936 is shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Comparison of Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices for October 1937 With September 1937 and October 1936*

[1926=100]

Commodity group	October 1937	September 1937	Percentage change from a month ago	October 1936	Percentage change from a year ago
All commodities	85.4	87.4	−2.3	81.5	+4.8
Farm products	80.4	85.9	−6.4	84.0	−4.3
Foods	85.5	88.0	−2.8	82.6	+3.5
Hides and leather products	106.7	107.6	−.8	95.6	+11.6
Textile products	73.5	75.3	−2.4	71.6	+2.7
Fuel and lighting materials	78.5	78.7	−.3	76.8	+2.2
Metals and metal products	96.4	97.1	−.7	86.9	+10.9
Building materials	95.4	96.2	−.8	87.3	+9.3
Chemicals and drugs	81.2	81.4	−.2	82.2	−1.2
Housefurnishing goods	91.0	91.1	−.1	82.0	+11.0
Miscellaneous	76.2	77.0	−1.0	71.5	+6.6
Raw materials	80.7	84.4	−4.4	82.1	−1.7
Semimanufactured articles	82.5	85.3	−3.3	76.2	+8.3
Finished products	88.1	89.1	−1.1	82.0	+7.4
All commodities other than farm products	86.4	87.6	−1.4	80.9	+6.8
All commodities other than farm products and foods	85.1	85.9	−.9	80.1	+6.2

Wholesale Price Level in October

The decrease of 2.3 percent in the all-commodity index during October was largely the result of sharp recessions in prices of farm products, foods, and textile products.

The decline brought the general index of commodity prices to 85.4 percent of the 1926 average, the low point of the year. Compared with the high point of the year—88.0 in April—the current index dropped 3.0 percent, but was 4.8 percent above the level for October 1936.

Each of the 10 major commodity groups declined during the month. Farm products led with a 6.4 percent decrease. Foods dropped 2.8 percent; textile products, 2.4 percent; miscellaneous commodities, 1.0 percent; hides and leather products and building materials, 0.8 percent; metals and metal products, 0.7 percent; fuel and lighting materials, 0.3 percent; chemicals and drugs, 0.2 percent; and housefurnishing goods, 0.1 percent.

Fluctuations within the major commodity groups which influenced the movement of the all-commodity index during October are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Number of Items Changing in Price From September to October 1937*

Commodity group	Increases	Decreases	No change
All commodities	96	241	447
Farm products	22	43	2
Foods	35	51	36
Hides and leather products	3	9	29
Textile products	2	61	49
Fuel and lighting materials	10	7	7
Metals and metal products	5	20	105
Building materials	7	22	57
Chemicals and drugs	7	)	73
Housefurnishing goods	1	5	55
Miscellaneous	4	14	34

Largely because of weakening prices for agricultural commodities, the raw materials group index declined 4.4 percent, and was 1.7 percent below the level of a year ago. Semimanufactured articles declined 3.3 percent during October, but were 8.3 percent above a year ago. Finished product prices decreased 1.1 percent during the month and were 7.4 percent above the October 1936 level.

Nonagricultural commodity prices fell 1.4 percent, according to the index for "All commodities other than farm products", and industrial commodity prices dropped 0.9 percent when measured by the index for "All commodities other than farm products and foods." The former group index—86.4—shows an increase of 6.8 percent during the year and the latter—85.1—an increase of 6.2 percent over the same period.

Wholesale market prices of farm products as a group declined 6.4 percent, largely because of decreases of 16.2 percent in grains and 7.7 percent in livestock and poultry prices. Since April grains have declined 35.4 percent and during the past 2 months livestock and poultry prices dropped 9.0 percent. Lower prices were reported in October for barley, corn, oats, rye, wheat, calves, cows, steers, hogs, sheep, cotton, apples, oranges, peanuts, dried beans, potatoes, and wool. Higher prices were reported for hay, hops, seeds, tobacco, and onions. The current farm product index—80.4— was 4.3 percent below that for October 1936.

The foods group dropped 2.8 percent as a result of decreases of 5.3 percent in meats, 2.8 percent in fruits and vegetables, and 1.7 percent in cereal products. Individual food items for which lower prices were reported were flour, hominy grits, corn meal, canned apples, prunes, raisins, lamb, mutton, fresh pork, veal, dressed poultry, cocoa beans, lard, pepper, sugar, tallow, and vegetable oils. Dairy products advanced 1.1 percent during the month interval. Higher prices were quoted for cheese, dried apples, copra, and cured fish. The October food index—85.5—was 3.5 percent above that for October 1936.

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Continued decreases in wholesale prices of cotton goods and silk and rayon, together with falling prices of clothing, knit goods, woolen and worsted goods and other textile products such as burlap, hemp, rope, and twine, caused the textile products group index to decline 2.4 percent to the lowest point reached this year. The cotton goods subgroup declined 23.1 percent since April, and silk and rayon decreased 11.3 percent since January.

Wholesale prices of crude rubber declined 12.5 percent during October, paper and pulp dropped 1.1 percent, and cylinder oil also averaged lower. Cattle feed prices advanced 3.0 percent.

Pronounced decreases in prices of hides, skins, and leather were responsible for the decrease of 0.8 percent in the hides and leather products group index. Average wholesale prices of shoes were fractionally higher and other leather products including gloves, belting, harness, and luggage remained firm.

The building materials group decreased 0.8 percent because of lower prices for brick, lumber, paint materials, and prepared roofing. The cement and structural steel subgroups remained unchanged at the previous month's level.

Continued weakness in prices of scrap steel and nonferrous metals such as electrolytic copper, pig lead, lead pipe, quicksilver, pig tin, pig zinc, and copper and brass manufactures resulted in the index for the metals and metal products group dropping 0.7 percent. Prices of wood screws, antimony, and motor vehicles advanced. Agricultural implements and plumbing and heating fixtures did not change.

Following a 6-month period of slowly rising prices, the fuel and lighting materials group decreased 0.3 percent as a result of lower prices for Pennsylvania crude petroleum. Wholesale prices of coal, coke, and gas were higher.

The chemicals and drugs group index declined 0.2 percent due principally to lower prices for fats and oils. Sharp increases were registered in prices of salt cake, caffeine, and tankage. Mixed fertilizer prices advanced fractionally.

A minor price decrease in bedding caused the house-furnishing goods group index to decline 0.1 percent. Average wholesale prices for furniture were stationary.

Index numbers for the groups and subgroups of commodities for September and October 1937 and for October of each of the past 7 years are shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities for October 1937*

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	Oct. 1937	Sept. 1937	Oct. 1936	Oct. 1935	Oct. 1934	Oct. 1933	Oct. 1932	Oct. 1931	Oct. 1930
All commodities	85.4	87.4	81.5	80.5	76.5	71.2	64.4	70.3	83.0
Farm products	80.4	85.9	84.0	78.2	70.6	55.7	46.9	58.8	82.5
Grains	77.0	91.9	102.1	86.4	85.0	58.2	34.4	44.3	72.1
Livestock and poultry	98.5	106.7	81.2	86.6	55.3	45.4	45.0	57.6	82.4
Other farm products	70.1	71.2	80.2	70.3	75.4	61.2	52.1	64.2	86.1
Foods	85.5	88.0	82.6	85.0	74.8	64.2	60.5	73.3	88.8
Dairy products	85.7	84.8	87.4	76.9	77.1	66.0	60.5	86.1	98.5
Cereal products	84.6	86.1	87.5	98.9	91.0	85.0	64.1	70.6	77.7
Fruits and vegetables	62.2	64.0	73.8	59.1	67.6	62.5	52.2	68.2	90.6
Meats	107.4	113.4	84.4	97.1	70.0	51.0	56.4	71.1	96.7
Other foods	73.4	75.5	77.4	81.2	71.0	64.4	65.4	69.7	79.2
Hides and leather products	106.7	107.6	95.6	93.6	83.8	89.0	72.8	82.5	96.6
Shoes	107.6	107.5	99.3	98.8	97.7	98.9	84.6	93.1	100.3
Hides and skins	117.1	120.7	97.2	92.9	59.7	71.2	49.6	50.0	83.6
Leather	97.2	98.9	85.4	86.6	70.5	83.2	64.1	80.7	96.7
Other leather products	103.3	103.3	95.4	85.0	85.9	85.1	81.9	101.1	104.8
Textile products	73.5	75.3	71.6	72.9	70.3	77.1	55.0	63.0	74.7
Clothing	89.4	89.7	81.2	80.8	79.1	84.8	62.5	73.9	83.9
Cotton goods	73.1	76.8	82.0	84.6	86.6	88.8	56.2	59.7	77.0
Knit goods	65.8	66.5	61.1	63.2	60.5	74.7	50.9	59.2	75.6
Silk and rayon	30.6	32.4	31.1	35.1	24.8	32.0	30.8	41.7	47.0
Woolen and worsted goods	90.1	92.4	80.5	79.1	74.8	84.5	56.5	64.6	75.0
Other textile products	69.0	70.0	67.0	68.3	68.5	75.3	67.7	72.4	80.7
Fuel and lighting materials	78.5	78.7	76.8	73.4	74.6	73.6	71.1	67.8	77.6
Anthracite	78.8	78.7	81.8	82.5	82.0	81.8	88.7	94.2	89.7
Bituminous coal	99.3	99.2	97.3	98.0	96.4	89.8	81.1	83.6	89.2
Coke	105.3	105.0	97.8	88.8	85.6	82.6	76.7	81.5	83.9
Electricity	81.0	80.5	82.8	86.3	94.5	92.3	104.6	102.1	97.3
Gas	83.6	84.0	86.0	89.0	96.9	100.5	104.4	100.8	99.7
Petroleum products	61.7	62.2	57.9	50.1	50.4	52.7	47.4	39.2	59.4
Metals and metal products	96.4	97.1	86.9	86.5	86.3	83.0	80.3	82.8	87.9
Agricultural implements	94.2	94.2	93.9	93.7	92.0	83.7	84.7	85.6	94.5
Iron and steel	99.7	99.8	88.8	86.9	86.2	82.4	80.4	81.7	87.1
Motor vehicles	97.8	96.6	90.8	92.9	94.7	90.9	92.7	95.4	96.3
Nonferrous metals	85.5	92.6	71.7	70.9	68.1	67.0	50.7	54.9	69.7
Plumbing and heating	80.6	80.6	76.6	71.1	68.1	74.7	67.5	81.6	83.4
Building materials	95.4	96.2	87.3	86.1	85.2	83.9	70.7	76.1	86.3
Brick and tile	93.4	95.0	88.3	88.3	91.2	84.6	75.3	82.6	87.7
Cement	95.5	95.5	95.5	95.5	93.9	91.2	79.0	75.1	91.7
Lumber	97.3	99.0	86.1	82.0	82.0	84.2	56.6	65.2	79.8
Paint and paint materials	84.2	84.6	80.2	81.9	79.4	76.1	68.3	77.0	85.4
Plumbing and heating	80.6	80.6	76.6	71.1	68.1	74.7	67.5	81.6	83.4
Structural steel	114.9	114.9	97.1	92.0	92.0	86.8	81.7	81.7	81.7
Other building materials	100.2	100.8	90.4	90.5	89.3	87.1	80.0	82.0	91.8
Chemicals and drugs	81.2	81.4	82.2	81.1	77.1	72.7	72.7	75.6	86.7
Chemicals	85.3	85.7	89.0	88.3	81.1	78.6	79.8	79.7	90.5
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	78.3	78.3	76.5	74.2	73.5	56.8	55.9	61.6	67.5
Fertilizer materials	72.5	71.8	67.4	67.2	65.7	67.6	63.4	70.2	83.6
Mixed fertilizers	74.9	74.8	69.7	67.9	73.0	68.3	66.5	77.2	92.9
Housefurnishing goods	91.0	91.1	82.0	80.6	81.7	81.2	73.7	81.0	92.1
Furnishings	94.9	94.9	85.6	84.2	84.4	82.8	74.7	79.8	90.9
Furniture	87.1	87.1	78.3	76.9	79.0	79.8	72.8	82.4	93.4
Miscellaneous	76.2	77.0	71.5	67.5	69.7	65.3	64.1	66.6	74.7
Automobile tires and tubes	56.4	56.4	47.5	45.0	44.7	43.2	44.6	46.0	50.1
Cattle feed	83.6	81.2	111.8	71.6	97.6	60.4	42.7	49.4	89.6
Paper and pulp	92.4	93.4	80.8	79.7	82.4	82.4	73.4	80.5	85.1
Rubber, crude	33.6	38.4	34.4	26.0	28.6	15.6	7.3	10.2	16.9
Other miscellaneous	84.6	85.1	81.5	80.2	81.1	78.6	82.1	86.9	92.0
Raw materials	80.7	84.4	82.1	77.1	72.1	61.8	54.6	61.5	79.9
Semimanufactured articles	82.5	85.3	76.2	76.3	71.5	72.8	60.7	65.2	76.8
Finished products	88.1	89.1	82.0	82.7	79.2	75.4	69.6	75.1	85.4
All commodities other than farm products	86.4	87.6	80.9	80.9	77.6	74.4	68.1	72.6	83.1
All commodities other than farm products and foods	85.1	85.9	80.1	78.3	78.0	77.2	70.2	72.9	82.1

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to October 1937

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups, by years from 1926 to 1936, inclusive, and by months from January 1936 to October 1937, inclusive, are shown in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and drugs	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
By years:											
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1927	99.4	96.7	107.7	95.6	88.3	96.3	94.7	96.8	97.5	91.0	95.4
1928	105.9	101.0	121.4	95.5	84.3	97.0	94.1	95.6	95.1	85.4	96.7
1929	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.2	94.3	82.6	95.3
1930	88.3	90.5	100.0	80.3	78.5	92.1	89.9	89.1	92.7	77.7	86.4
1931	64.8	74.6	86.1	66.3	67.5	84.5	79.2	79.3	84.9	69.8	73.0
1932	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.5	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.6	75.8	62.5	65.9
1934	65.3	70.5	86.6	72.9	73.3	86.9	86.2	75.9	81.5	69.7	74.9
1935	78.8	83.7	89.6	70.9	73.5	86.4	85.3	80.5	80.6	68.3	80.0
1936	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	80.4	81.7	70.5	80.8
By months:											
1936:											
January	78.2	83.5	97.1	71.7	75.1	86.7	85.7	80.5	81.4	67.8	80.6
February	79.5	83.2	96.1	71.0	76.1	86.7	85.5	80.1	81.5	68.1	80.6
March	76.5	80.1	94.9	70.8	76.2	86.6	85.3	79.3	81.4	68.3	79.6
April	76.9	80.2	94.6	70.2	76.4	86.6	85.7	78.5	81.5	68.6	79.7
May	75.2	78.0	94.0	69.8	76.0	86.3	85.8	77.7	81.5	69.2	78.6
June	78.1	79.9	93.8	69.7	76.1	86.2	85.8	78.0	81.4	69.7	79.2
July	81.3	81.4	93.4	70.5	76.2	86.9	86.7	79.4	81.2	71.0	80.5
August	83.8	83.1	93.6	70.9	76.3	87.1	86.9	79.8	81.4	71.5	81.6
September	84.0	83.3	94.6	70.9	76.1	86.8	87.1	81.7	81.7	71.3	81.6
October	84.0	82.6	95.6	71.6	76.8	86.9	87.3	82.2	82.0	71.5	81.5
November	85.1	83.9	97.0	73.5	76.8	87.9	87.7	82.5	82.3	73.4	82.4
December	88.5	85.5	99.7	76.3	76.5	89.6	89.5	85.3	83.2	74.5	84.2
1937:											
January	91.3	87.1	101.7	77.5	76.6	90.9	91.3	87.7	86.5	76.2	85.9
February	91.4	87.0	102.7	77.5	76.8	91.7	93.3	87.8	87.9	77.3	86.3
March	94.1	87.5	104.2	78.3	76.2	96.0	95.9	87.5	88.4	79.5	87.8
April	92.2	85.5	106.3	79.5	76.8	96.5	96.7	86.9	89.0	81.1	88.0
May	89.2	84.2	106.7	78.7	77.2	95.8	97.2	84.5	89.3	80.5	87.4
June	88.5	84.7	106.4	78.2	77.5	95.9	96.9	83.6	89.5	79.4	87.2
July	89.3	86.2	106.7	78.3	78.1	96.1	96.7	83.9	89.7	79.0	87.9
August	86.4	86.7	108.1	77.1	78.4	97.0	96.3	82.2	91.1	77.3	87.5
September	85.9	88.0	107.6	75.3	78.7	97.1	96.2	81.4	91.1	77.0	87.4
October	80.4	85.5	106.7	73.5	78.5	96.4	95.4	81.2	91.0	76.2	85.4

The price trend since 1926 is shown in table 5 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, finished products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Finished products" was given in the October 1934 issue of the pamphlet on Wholesale Prices.

TABLE 5.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Special Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Finished products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1927	96.5	94.3	95.0	94.6	94.0
1928	99.1	94.5	95.9	94.8	92.9
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6
1930	84.3	81.8	88.0	85.9	85.2
1931	65.6	69.0	77.0	74.6	75.0
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2
1934	68.6	72.8	78.2	76.9	78.4
1935	77.1	73.6	82.2	80.2	77.9
1936	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6
1936:					
January	78.1	74.8	82.4	80.9	78.8
February	79.1	74.6	82.2	80.7	79.0
March	77.4	74.4	81.3	80.2	78.9
April	77.0	74.5	81.6	80.1	78.9
May	75.8	74.1	80.5	79.2	78.8
June	77.6	73.9	80.7	79.4	78.8
1936—Continued.					
July	79.8	75.2	81.6	80.3	79.5
August	81.5	75.6	82.4	80.9	79.7
September	81.8	75.9	82.3	80.9	79.6
October	82.1	76.2	82.0	80.9	80.1
November	83.1	78.6	82.6	81.7	81.0
December	85.6	82.3	83.8	83.1	82.2
1937:					
January	88.1	85.4	84.9	84.6	83.4
February	88.3	85.5	85.4	85.0	84.1
March	90.1	89.6	86.4	86.3	85.5
April	88.7	89.5	87.4	86.9	86.5
May	87.1	87.5	87.5	86.7	86.3
June	86.1	86.8	87.7	86.8	86.1
July	86.5	87.0	88.8	87.5	86.3
August	84.8	86.6	89.0	87.6	86.1
September	84.4	85.3	89.1	87.6	85.9
October	80.7	82.5	88.1	86.4	85.1

Weekly Fluctuations

Wholesale commodity prices followed a general downward course throughout October. Following a recession of 1.0 percent between October 2 and 9, the downward movement slackened slightly until the last week of the month when the all-commodity index fell 1.1 percent. The cumulative decline from the week ended September 25 to that ended October 30 was 4.0 percent.

Except for a slight upward tendency toward mid-October, the farm products group index fell sharply throughout the month. The decrease from September 25 to October 30 was nearly 11 percent. Wholesale food prices fell consistently during each week of October, registering a drop of 5.5 percent from the last week of September to the last week of October. The only suggestion of an upward movement in the remaining groups was a 0.3 percent increase in metals and metal products during the second week of the month and a 0.2 percent increase in chemicals and drugs during the first week of the month.

Price variations in the major commodity groups during October are shown by the index numbers in table 6. The percentage changes from week to week are given in table 7.

TABLE 6.—*Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Commodity Groups, September and October 1937*

[1926=100]

Commodity group	Oct. 30, 1937	Oct. 23, 1937	Oct. 16, 1937	Oct. 9, 1937	Oct. 2, 1937	Sept. 25, 1937	Sept. 18, 1937	Sept. 11, 1937	Sept. 4, 1937
All commodities	84.0	84.9	85.2	86.0	86.9	87.5	87.4	86.8	86.4
Farm products	77.8	80.7	80.3	82.7	85.4	87.3	86.5	84.5	84.6
Foods	83.8	85.0	85.4	86.9	87.8	88.7	88.6	86.6	85.7
Hides and leather products	106.4	106.9	107.7	108.1	108.2	108.3	108.3	108.5	108.6
Textile products	72.6	72.8	72.8	73.3	73.9	74.5	75.1	75.5	75.8
Fuel and lighting materials	78.9	79.1	79.2	79.5	79.4	79.6	79.4	79.8	79.2
Metals and metal products	95.3	95.6	95.9	95.6	95.8	96.4	96.4	96.4	96.4
Building materials	95.0	95.4	95.9	95.9	96.2	96.5	96.3	96.4	96.3
Chemicals and drugs	80.6	80.6	80.9	81.2	81.0	81.2	81.2	80.9	81.0
Housefurnishing goods	92.6	92.7	92.7	92.7	92.7	92.7	92.8	92.8	92.7
Miscellaneous	75.7	76.0	76.3	76.6	76.8	77.1	76.9	76.9	76.6
Raw materials	78.7	80.5	80.5	82.1	83.9	85.0	84.6	83.4	83.3
Semimanufactured articles	81.5	81.9	82.5	83.4	83.9	85.4	85.6	85.7	86.0
Finished products	87.3	87.9	88.2	88.7	89.1	89.5	89.4	88.9	88.4
All commodities other than farm products	85.4	85.9	86.2	86.8	87.2	87.6	87.6	87.2	86.8
All commodities other than farm products and foods	84.7	85.0	85.2	85.3	85.6	85.9	85.9	86.0	85.9

TABLE 7.—*Weekly Changes in Wholesale Prices (Percentage) During October 1937, by Groups of Commodities*

Commodity group	Percentage change from—					
	Sept. 25 to Oct. 30	Oct. 23 to Oct. 30	Oct. 16 to Oct. 23	Oct. 9 to Oct. 16	Oct. 2 to Oct. 9	Sept. 25 to Oct. 2
All commodities	−4.0	−1.1	−0.4	−0.9	−1.0	−0.7
Farm products	−10.9	−3.6	+.5	−2.9	−3.2	−2.2
Foods	−5.5	−1.4	−.5	−1.7	−1.0	−1.0
Hides and leather products	−1.8	−.5	−.7	−.4	−.1	−.1
Textile products	−2.6	−.3	0	−.7	−.8	−.8
Fuel and lighting materials	−.9	−.3	−.1	−.4	+.1	−.3
Metals and metal products	−1.1	−.3	−.3	+.3	−.2	−.6
Building materials	−1.6	−.4	−.5	0	−.3	−.3
Chemicals and drugs	−.7	0	−.4	−.4	+.2	−.2
Housefurnishing goods	−.1	−.1	0	0	0	0
Miscellaneous	−1.8	−.4	−.4	−.4	−.3	−.4
Raw materials	−7.4	−2.2	0	−1.9	−2.1	−1.3
Semimanufactured articles	−4.6	−.5	−.7	−1.1	−.6	−1.8
Finished products	−2.5	−.7	−.3	−.6	−.4	−.4
All commodities other than farm products	−2.5	−.6	−.3	−.7	−.5	−.5
All commodities other than farm products and foods	−1.4	−.4	−.2	−.1	−.4	−.3

Individual Commodities

The table showing monthly average wholesale prices and index numbers of individual commodities formerly appearing in the Wholesale Price pamphlet is now published semiannually instead of monthly. The June 1937 issue showed the average for the year 1936 and information for the first 6 months of 1937. The monthly figures will be furnished upon request.

WHOLESALE PRICES IN THE UNITED STATES AND IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES

IN TABLE 8 index numbers of wholesale prices of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the United States Department of Labor, and those in certain foreign countries, have been brought together in order that the trend of prices in the several countries may be compared. The base periods here shown are those appearing in the original sources from which the information has been drawn. In certain countries the base is the year 1913 or some other pre-war period. Only general comparisons can be made from these figures, since, in addition to differences in the base periods and the kind and number of articles included, there are important differences in the composition of the index numbers themselves. Indexes are shown for the years 1926–36, inclusive, and by months from January 1935 through October 1937.

TABLE 8.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices in the United States and in Foreign Countries*

Country	United States	Argentina	Australia	Austria	Belgium	Bulgaria	Canada	Chile	China
Computing agency	Bureau of Labor Statistics	National Bank, Bureau of Economic Research	Bureau of Census and Statistics	Federal Statistical Bureau	Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare	General Statistical Bureau	Dominion Bureau of Statistics	General Statistical Bureau	National Tariff Commission, Shanghai
Base period	1926 (100)	1926 (100)	1911 (1,000)	January-June 1914 (100)	April 1914 (100)	1926 (100)	1926 (100)	1913 (100)	1926 (100)
Commodities	784	105	92	47	(Paper) 125	(Gold) 55	567 [1]	(Paper)	(Silver) 155 [2]
1926	100.0	100.0	1,832	123	744	100.0	100.0	----------	100.0
1927	95.4	98.1	1,817	133	847	102.4	97.7	----------	104.4
1928	96.7	98.5	1,792	130	843	109.8	96.4	195.5	101.7
1929	95.3	96.4	1,803	130	851	117.0	95.6	192.4	104.5
1930	86.4	92.2	1,596	117	744	94.6	86.6	166.9	114.8
1931	73.0	89.0	1,428	108	626	79.1	72.1	152.2	126.7
1932	64.8	89.5	1,411	112	532	70.3	66.7	230.4	112.4
1933	65.9	85.6	1,409	108	501	61.8	67.1	346.0	103.8
1934	74.9	98.2	1,471	110	473	63.6	71.6	343.6	97.1
1935	80.0	97.0	1,469	110	537	65.1	72.1	343.3	96.4
1936	80.8	----------	1,543	109	588	67.5	74.6	----------	108.5
1935									
January	78.8	97.7	1,459	110	472	64.5	71.4	346.7	99.4
February	79.5	96.8	1,451	109	466	64.3	71.9	340.3	99.9
March	79.4	97.1	1,443	109	464	64.2	72.0	336.7	96.4
April	80.1	96.6	1,444	109	531	66.0	72.5	334.9	95.9
May	80.2	96.5	1,458	110	552	64.7	72.3	339.3	95.0
June	79.8	96.1	1,466	111	555	64.3	71.4	339.6	92.1
July	79.4	95.6	1,479	112	553	64.2	71.5	342.4	90.4
August	80.5	95.7	1,498	111	552	64.0	71.6	343.3	91.9
September	80.7	96.6	1,495	110	560	64.4	72.3	346.2	91.1
October	80.5	98.5	1,499	109	544	66.6	73.1	348.7	94.1
November	80.6	98.5	1,479	109	582	66.9	72.7	351.5	103.3
December	80.9	98.7	1,460	109	579	66.7	72.6	350.1	103.3
1936									
January	80.6	98.9	1,475	108	581	65.8	72.9	353.7	104.3
February	80.6	97.9	1,466	107	582	65.2	72.5	355.2	105.4
March	79.6	98.2	1,485	107	578	64.7	72.4	359.5	106.4
April	79.7	98.0	1,515	108	574	66.4	72.2	359.8	107.3
May	78.6	97.8	1,521	108	569	66.3	71.8	367.8	105.8
June	79.2	97.6	1,523	109	570	66.0	72.3	374.4	106.1
July	80.5	98.8	1,552	110	576	66.6	74.4	382.2	107.2
August	81.6	100.9	1,585	109	582	67.7	76.2	389.8	107.4
September	81.6	100.3	1,573	110	594	68.8	76.4	402.0	107.0
October	81.5	99.9	1,591	111	602	70.4	77.1	405.4	109.7
November	82.4	100.4	1,620	111	615	71.2	77.2	399.2	113.0
December	84.2	102.6	1,611	111	637	71.5	79.7	405.6	118.8
1937									
January	85.9	104.5	1,644	112	658	72.0	81.3	421.2	121.6
February	86.3	106.4	1,618	112	675	72.0	82.9	435.6	122.9
March	87.8	110.6	1,652	112	693	72.2	85.5	457.5	123.0
April	88.0	113.1	1,657	113	696	73.1	86.1	463.5	123.9
May	87.4	114.4	1,660	115	693	73.3	85.1	465.4	125.1
June	87.2	114.6	1,663	115	697	73.4	84.6	462.4	126.1
July	87.9	115.8	----------	116	702	76.6	87.5	465.4	----------
August	87.5	----------	----------	114	700	----------	85.6	472.0	----------
September	87.4	----------	----------	113	----------	----------	85.0	----------	----------
October	85.4	----------	----------	113	----------	----------	84.7	----------	----------

[1] Revised for commodities since January 1934.

[2] Quotations, 154 since January 1932.

TABLE 8.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices in the United States and in Foreign Countries*—Continued

Country	Czechoslovakia	Denmark	Finland	France	Germany	India	Italy	Japan	Netherlands
Computing agency	Central Bureau of Statistics	Statistical Department	Central Bureau of Statistics	General Statistical Bureau	Federal Statistical Bureau	Department, etc.,[3] Calcutta	Central Institute of Statistics	Bank of Japan, Tokio	Central Bureau of Statistics
Base period	July 1914 (100)	1931 (100)	1926 (100)	1913 (100)	1913 (100)	July 1914 (100)	1928 (100)	October 1900 (100)	1926–30 (100)
Commodities	69	161	120	(Paper) 126	400	72	293	56	269 (plus)
1926	943	143	100	695	134.4	148	.....	236.7	105.8
1927	968	134	101	642	137.6	148	.....	224.6	102.8
1928	968	134	102	645	140.0	145	.....	226.1	102.2
1929	914	132	98	627	137.2	141	95.4	219.8	99.7
1930	811	114	90	554	124.6	116	85.4	181.0	89.6
1931	738	100	84	502	110.9	96	74.5	153.0	76.3
1932	682	103	90	427	96.5	91	69.6	161.1	64.6
1933	659	110	89	398	93.3	87	63.4	179.5	62.9
1934	674	119	90	376	98.4	89	62.0	177.6	63.0
1935	704	122	90	339	101.8	91	68.2	185.5	61.5
1936	704	129	92	.....	104.1	91	76.4	197.5	63.8
1935									
January	694	122	90	350	101.1	94	.....	181.5	61.7
February	698	122	90	343	100.9	90	.....	184.1	61.6
March	700	119	90	335	100.7	87	.....	183.5	60.6
April	697	120	90	336	100.8	88	.....	182.3	60.9
May	703	120	90	340	100.8	91	.....	182.4	60.9
June	707	120	90	330	101.2	91	.....	180.2	60.9
July	722	120	90	322	101.8	91	.....	180.2	60.6
August	705	123	90	330	102.4	89	.....	182.9	60.8
September	705	124	91	332	102.3	89	.....	188.9	61.8
October	703	126	92	342	102.8	93	.....	194.0	63.3
November	708	126	91	348	103.1	92	.....	193.6	62.7
December	707	126	91	354	103.4	93	.....	191.9	62.5
1936									
January	711	126	90	359	103.6	92	74.3	191.8	62.4
February	704	126	91	372	103.6	91	74.5	191.0	62.0
March	706	126	91	376	103.6	91	75.4	190.7	61.5
April	703	126	90	371	103.7	92	75.9	192.4	61.1
May	703	126	90	374	103.8	90	75.6	192.4	61.0
June	698	125	90	378	104.0	90	75.8	193.6	61.6
July	699	127	91	391	104.2	91	74.7	197.4	62.3
August	691	129	91	403	104.6	90	75.9	200.7	62.7
September	693	130	92	420	104.4	91	76.9	201.0	62.6
October	704	133	93	471	104.3	93	77.1	260.4	68.2
November	714	134	94	492	104.4	93	77.8	203.5	69.5
December	722	136	95	519	105.0	94	79.0	214.0	71.0
1937									
January	737	137	98	538	105.3	98	81.6	233.3	73.0
February	745	140	101	533	105.5	99	83.3	230.4	74.0
March	754	143	103	550	106.1	100	85.1	239.8	76.0
April	764	146	103	552	105.8	103	86.1	248.0	77.1
May	755	147	104	550	105.9	103	87.8	241.0	76.7
June	752	146	103	557	106.1	102	89.6	238.3	76.3
July	763	148	103	.....	106.4	104	90.3	238.9	77.5
August	759	148	103	.....	106.7	105	91.2	234.7	77.6
September	755	147	104	.....	106.2	104	91.7	238.5	76.9
October	749	148	.....	.....	.....	105	.....	.....	.....

[3] Department of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics.

TABLE 8.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices in the United States and in Foreign Countries*—Continued

Country	New Zealand (revised)	Norway	Peru	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	United Kingdom	Yugoslavia
Computing agency	Census and Statistics Office	Central Bureau of Statistics	Central Bank of Reserve	Central Office of Statistics	Office of Census and Statistics	Board of Trade	Federal Labor Department	Board of Trade	National Bank
Base period	1909–13 (1,000)	1913 (100)	1913 (100)	1928 (100)	1910 (1,000)	1913 (100)	July 1914 (100)	1930 (100)	1926 (100)
Commodities	180	95	(Paper) 58	238	188	160	77	[4] 200	55
1926	1,553	----------	203.2	----------	1,387	149	144.5	----------	100.0
1927	1,478	----------	202.6	----------	1,395	146	142.2	----------	103.4
1928	1,492	157	191.9	100.0	1,354	148	144.6	----------	106.2
1929	1,488	149	185.7	96.3	1,305	140	141.2	----------	100.6
1930	1,449	137	178.0	85.5	1,155	122	126.5	100.0	86.6
1931	1,346	122	175.1	74.6	1,119	111	109.7	87.8	72.9
1932	1,297	122	170.3	65.5	1,032	109	96.0	85.6	62.5
1933	1,308	122	180.2	59.1	1,047	107	91.0	85.7	64.4
1934	1,330	124	188.1	55.8	1,143	114	89.8	88.1	63.2
1935	1,385	127	188.8	53.1	1,066	116	89.8	88.9	65.9
1936	1,399	134	191.9	54.0	1,109	120	95.6	94.4	68.4
1935									
January	1,345	125	186.3	52.7	1,074	115	88.3	88.3	64.5
February	1,361	125	188.2	52.2	----------	115	87.6	88.0	63.9
March	1,365	126	191.2	52.1	----------	115	86.4	86.9	63.0
April	1,367	125	190.6	52.2	1,044	115	87.1	87.5	62.9
May	1,365	125	190.4	52.7	----------	115	87.6	88.3	64.0
June	1,374	126	191.5	52.6	----------	116	88.6	88.5	63.9
July	1,386	127	190.7	52.9	1,069	116	89.9	88.1	63.3
August	1,393	128	188.6	53.5	----------	115	91.4	88.5	64.8
September	1,419	128	186.7	52.2	----------	115	92.2	89.6	67.8
October	1,434	130	188.0	54.5	1,080	117	93.3	91.2	70.0
November	1,419	130	188.1	54.5	----------	118	92.8	91.3	71.2
December	1,414	131	189.3	52.7	----------	118	92.1	91.5	71.6
1936									
January	1,405	131	191.1	52.1	1,120	118	91.0	91.8	71.1
February	1,384	132	191.9	52.2	----------	118	91.0	91.7	70.0
March	1,386	132	191.2	52.1	----------	118	90.9	91.7	70.0
April	1,393	132	192.5	53.0	1,122	118	91.9	91.9	69.1
May	1,391	132	192.1	53.7	----------	118	92.0	91.9	67.0
June	1,399	132	191.3	53.9	----------	118	91.9	92.6	65.4
July	1,395	132	192.5	53.6	1,085	119	93.1	93.6	65.6
August	1,409	134	192.7	53.9	----------	120	83.4	95.2	66.0
September	1,421	136	192.2	54.6	----------	122	96.8	96.1	67.0
October	1,426	136	192.0	55.5	1,111	123	103.1	97.6	68.9
November	1,427	137	191.7	56.1	----------	124	105.2	98.3	69.8
December	1,450	140	191.6	56.9	----------	126	106.8	100.8	71.2
1937									
January	1,449	144	194.0	58.4	1,131	129	108.3	102.9	70.4
February	1,467	147	198.8	59.9	----------	132	111.3	103.9	70.9
March	1,472	150	204.0	60.6	----------	136	113.3	107.3	72.1
April	1,481	154	208.1	60.1	1,109	138	113.0	108.9	72.3
May	1,502	157	209.1	59.9	----------	139	112.5	110.7	72.6
June	1,514	157	205.7	60.3	----------	139	112.0	110.6	72.1
July	1,512	160	206.2	60.0	1,141	140	112.4	111.5	----------
August	1,525	160	205.7	59.6	----------	140	110.8	111.4	75.3
September	----------	161	207.2	59.6	----------	140	110.5	111.2	78.1
October	----------	161	----------	----------	----------	139	110.9	110.6	80.0

[4] Revised for commodities since January 1930.

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

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Agriculture

Changes in technology and labor requirements in crop production: Sugar beets. By Loring T. Macy and others. Washington, U. S. Works Progress Administration, National Research Project, 1937. xv, 48 pp., charts, illus. (Studies of Changing Techniques and Employment in Agriculture, Report No. A–1.)

Distribution of hired farm laborers in United States. By Lucius T. Wendzel. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 8 pp., chart. (Serial No. R. 625, reprint from September 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Population, dwellings, and labor, on farms; years on farm; and part-time work off farm. Washington, U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1937. 94 pp. (Reprint of Ch. IV, Vol. III, pp. 140–233, Census of Agriculture, 1935.)

Landbrugets arbejdskraft, 1934 og 1935. Copenhagen, Statistiske Departement, 1937. 52 pp. (Statistiske Meddelelser, 4.række, 102.bind, 3.hæfte.)

A report on labor employed in Danish agriculture in 1934 and 1935. The table of contents and some table heads are in both Danish and French.

Construction Industry

Construction costs: The construction industry yearbook and directory service, 1937 edition. New York, Engineering News-Record, 330 West 42d Street, 1937. 160 pp., maps, charts, illus.

Wage rates and workmen's-compensation insurance rates are among the data presented for the industry. The wage data include tabulations of average hourly rates for six occupations in seven different cities, by year, 1910 to 1936, and average hourly rates for five occupations in New York City, by year, 1874 to 1936.

Consumer Problems

Bills and laws affecting consumers, selected from bills and resolutions introduced in 75th Congress, January 5 to May 15, 1937. Washington, U. S. Consumers' Project, 1937. 104 pp.; mimeographed.

Cooperative Movement

Consumers' cooperatives in the Chicago district. By Sidney N. Gubin. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 23 pp. (Serial No. R. 635, reprint from October 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Consumers' cooperative societies (basic information sources). Compiled by Ruth C. Leslie. Washington, Marketing Research Division, U. S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, September 1936. 18 pp.; mimeographed.

Bibliography of material relating to consumers' cooperation.

Cooperative bookshelf: A bibliography of Government publications on consumers' cooperation. Washington, Consumers' Counsel Division, U. S. Agricultural Adjustment Administration, and Consumers' Project, U. S. Department of Labor, May 1937. 13 pp.

Economic analysis of bargaining problems of milk cooperatives. By T. G. Stitts and Wm. C. Welden. Washington, Cooperative Division, U. S. Farm Credit Administration, 1937. 54 pp., charts, illus. (Circular C–104.)

La coopération socialiste Belge, 1934–1935: Résultats du recensement opéré par les soins de la Société Générale Coopérative (S. G. C.). Brussels, Société Générale Coopérative, 1937. 53 pp.

Data on the various types of cooperatives in the so-called "socialist" cooperative movement in Belgium, obtained in a census carried on by the General Cooperative Society (the central cooperative federation).

Annual report of New York Superintendent of Banks relative to savings and loan associations, savings and loan bank of State of New York, and credit unions, for year 1936. Albany, 1937. 511 pp. (Legislative Document, 1937, No. 25.)

Cost of Living and Living Conditions

Money disbursements of workers in California. By Genevieve B. Wimsatt. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 13 pp. (Serial No. R. 630, reprint from September 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Living conditions and population migration in four Appalachian counties. By L. S. Dodson. Washington, U. S. Farm Security Administration and Bureau of Agricultural Economics, 1937. 152 pp., charts. (Social Research Report No. III.)

After outlining general living conditions, markets, relief, and the amount of wealth in this area, and recommending action, the living conditions in four different counties, two each in North Carolina and Kentucky, are described in detail.

Dismissal Compensation

Dismissal compensation. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 247 Park Avenue, 1937. 18 pp. (Studies in Personnel Policy, No. 1.)

Reviewed in this issue.

Economic and Social Problems

The new middle class. By Emil Lederer and Jacob Marschak. (Translated from the German, Der Neue Mittelstand, in Grundriss der Sozialökonomik, IX.Abteilung, I.Teil, Tübingen, 1926.) New York, State Department of Social Welfare, and Columbia University, Department of Social Science, 1937. 46 pp.

One of a series of translations of foreign social-science monographs, made under the auspices of the U. S. Works Progress Administration. The term "new middle class" refers to public and private salaried employees. The authors hold that employment in a dependent capacity gives to this group a predominant community of interest with organized labor.

Jahrbuch der nationalsozialistischen wirtschaft. Herausgeber Otto Mönckmeier. Munich, Zentralverlag der NSDAP, 1937. 643 pp.

A handbook on the various phases of contemporary national economy in Germany.

Handbook of Latin American studies. Edited by Lewis Hanke. Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1937. 515 pp.

Annotated bibliography, classified by subject and country, of books, periodical articles, etc., concerning Latin America, which were published in 1936. Many of the items deal with social and labor problems.

Education

Educational opportunities of Greater Boston for working men and women—Catalog No. 15, 1937–1938. Cambridge, Mass., Prospect Union Educational Exchange, 1937. 187 pp.

Enlightened self-interest: A study of educational programs of trade associations. By Dorothy Rowden. New York, American Association for Adult Education, 1937. 85 pp.

Trade associations of the United States are themselves serving as educational agencies or are cooperating with public schools, agricultural colleges, and extension departments of colleges and universities in industrial training. The author gives detailed accounts of the educational programs of four outstanding associations, and briefly outlines a number of other programs, to illustrate general trends in the educational activities of these business organizations.

Employment and Unemployment

Labor and material involved in grade-crossing eliminations. By Herman B. Byer. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 4 pp. (Serial No. R. 626, reprint from September 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Labor requirements in rail transportation of construction materials. By John A. Ball. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 8 pp. (Serial No. R. 637, reprint from October 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Annual report of General Superintendent of Employment Service of Province of Alberta, for fiscal year 1936–1937. Edmonton, 1937. 9 pp., charts.

For the year under review the total applications for employment numbered 48,402. There were 20,662 placements—a decrease of 6,936 from the preceding year.

Engineering Profession

Annual income in engineering profession, 1929 to 1934. By Andrew Fraser, Jr. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 15 pp. (Serial No. R. 631, reprint from September 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Governmental Labor Agencies

The expanding activities of State labor departments. By Estelle M. Stewart. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 12 pp. (Serial No. R. 623, reprint from September 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Meeting of governmental labor officials, 1937. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 5 pp. (Serial No. R. 639, reprint from October 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Health and Industrial Hygiene

The cost of adequate medical care. By Samuel Bradbury, M. D. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1937. 86 pp.

An attempt to determine the cost of adequate medical care based on the present-day private practice of medicine and on a current schedule of fees for the different types of services rendered.

Health under the "El": The story of the Bellevue-Yorkville Health Demonstration in mid-town New York. By C. E. A. Winslow and Savel Zimand. New York, Harper & Bros., 1937. 203 pp., illus.

The ten-year experience of this health center is said to have been the moving factor in the present health program in New York City in which nine new health centers either have been finished or are under construction. The report shows a notable decrease for the district covered in the tuberculosis rate, the infant-mortality rate, and mortality from diphtheria.

Illness and medical care in Puerto Rico. By Joseph W. Mountin, Elliott H. Pennell, and Evelyn Flook. Washington, U. S. Public Health Service, 1937. 63 pp., map., illus. (Public Health Bulletin No. 237.)

The study covered the medical and hospital services in Puerto Rico and data on morbidity and mortality among the population. There is a discussion of the make-up of the population, economic conditions, diet, housing, sanitation, illness, and special disease problems; and an account of the facilities for medical care.

Mortality in certain States during 1936, with comparative data for recent years. Washington, U. S. Public Health Service, 1937. 11 pp. (Reprint No. 1821, from Public Health Reports, May 7, 1937.)

The mortality rates in the report are based on returns from 25 States and the District of Columbia for the year 1936. Mortality from all causes, which was unusually low throughout the depression, was about 5 percent higher in these States in 1936 than in 1935.

Twenty-five years of health progress: A study of mortality experience among industrial policyholders of Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, 1911 to 1935. By Louis I. Dublin and Alfred J. Lotka. New York, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., 1937. 611 pp., charts.

Extensive gains in life expectancy over the 25-year period are revealed, and the facts presented, the authors believe, will serve as a guide in the formulation of a working program for the prevention of sickness and premature death, showing the best points of attack and making possible the concentration of effort where it will do the most good.

Medicolegal trends in occupational diseases—a statistical and legal analysis of medicolegal experience. By C. O. Sappington, M. D. 15 pp. (In Industrial Medicine, Chicago, May 1937; also reprinted.)

Recent advances in industrial hygiene and medicine. By T. M. Ling. Philadelphia, P. Blakiston's Son & Co., Inc., 1937. 212 pp., charts, illus.

Deals with the occupational selection of employees; industrial sickness, both in dangerous trades and in industry in general; the effect of working conditions on sickness incidence; industrial accidents, their treatment, and rehabilitation after injury; industrial fatigue; the neuroses; and the well-known occupational diseases.

Nutrition—a policy of national health. By Barbara Drake. London, New Fabian Research Bureau, 37 Great James Street, W. C. 1., 1936. 36 pp.

Summarizes current information regarding minimum diets necessary for nutrition and the prevalence of malnutrition in Great Britain, and outlines a program providing an adequate diet, particularly milk, for mothers and children.

Housing

Comprehensive housing legislation chart, indicating status of legislation affecting public and private housing, as of March 1, 1937. Washington, U. S. National Emergency Council, 1937. In tabular form.

Covers the various States and Territories and the United States as a whole.

Federal Housing Act of 1937. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 5 pp. (Serial No. R. 641, reprint from October 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

British housing and housing policies, 1919 to 1937. By Margaret H. Schoenfeld. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 16 pp. (Serial No. R. 634, reprint from October 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

City of Liverpool housing, 1937. Liverpool, Housing Department, 1937. 72 pp., illus.

Includes descriptions with illustrations of the housing facilities provided by the city, the number and types of flats and houses, and information on rents.

Annual report of London County Council, 1935, Vol. II. London, 1937. 56 pp.

Covers public-health and housing activities.

Income

National income, 1929–36. By Robert R. Nathan. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, 1937. 32 pp., charts.

Summary information for 1936, with revised general figures for earlier years. A more extensive monograph, with further expected revisions based on additional Treasury data and information from other sources, is announced for publication in 1938. A preliminary report was reviewed in the August 1937 Monthly Labor Review (p. 409).

National income of New Zealand. By F. B. Stephens. Melbourne, Melbourne University Press, 1937. 30 pp. (Auckland University College Reprints, Economic Series No. 4.)

Shows the various series of statistics used and the method by which national income is estimated. Figures are presented by years from 1925–26 to 1930–31, inclusive.

Industrial Accidents and Workmen's Compensation

Biennial report of Nevada Industrial Commission, reviewing administration of Nevada Industrial Insurance Act, for period July 1, 1934, to June 30, 1936. Carson City, 1937. 32 pp.

During 1934–35 reports were received of 30 injuries resulting in death or permanent total disability and 2,318 resulting in permanent partial or temporary disability; during 1935–36 there were 26 cases in the former class and 2,754 in the latter. For mining and milling, the average cost of compensable cases is given as $228.12 in 1934–35 and $210.36 in 1935–36; for other industries, $226.36 in 1934–35 and $190.26 in 1935–36.

Report of Nevada State Inspector of Mines for period July 1, 1934, to June 30, 1936, inclusive. Carson City, 1936. 51 pp.

Describes fatal and nonfatal accidents and gives information on production.

Proceedings of Casualty Actuarial Society, November 13, 1936. New York, 90 John Street, [1937?]. 134 pp.

The presidential address, by Winfield W. Greene, was devoted to personal impressions of State monopoly of compensation insurance. Papers presented at the conference included "Small risks versus large risks in workmen's compensation insurance," by Mark Kormes, and "On the use of synthetic risks in determining pure premium excess ratios for large compensation and liability risks," by Paul Dorweiler.

Statistics of workmen's compensation [Irish Free State], 1935. Dublin, Department of Industry and Commerce, 1937. 16 pp.

Presents statistics on all cases of workmen's compensation involving court procedure, and on compensation paid in certain industries. The latter figures, like those published for the years 1928 to 1931, 1933, and 1934, are limited in scope and are not comparable with the statistics published for 1926, 1927, and 1932. Only establishments in selected industries of insured employers or certain large uninsured employers are covered. In these groups, compensation totaling £170,155 was paid during 1935, in 53 fatal and 8,309 nonfatal accident and occupational-disease cases, as against £147,838, in 1934, in 42 fatal and 8,103 nonfatal cases.

Some facts on compensation costs with special reference to inclusion of occupational diseases. By Henry D. Sayer. New York, Association of Casualty and Surety Executives, 1 Park Avenue, 1937. 12 pp.

A discussion of the various factors to be considered in the compensation of occupational diseases, with particular reference to silicosis.

Coal Mines Act, 1911: Regulations and orders relating to safety and health. London, Mines Department, 1937. 184 pp. (Revised to Jan. 1, 1937.)

Suggested procedure for conducting first-aid and mine rescue contests. By G. W. Grove. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Mines, 1937. 51 pp. (Technical Paper 579.)

Petroleum industry safety standards, 1937 edition. Oklahoma City, Department of Labor, 1937. 104 pp., illus. (Bureau of Factory Inspection Bulletin No. 11–A.)

Fifth revision of mandatory and advisory regulations for safety of workers in the petroleum industry.

Industrial Relations

The city's role in strikes—a new outlook and suggested technique for municipal officials. Chicago, International City Managers' Association, 1937. 22 pp.

A compilation of articles by various authors, representing employers, labor leaders, municipal officials, and authorities on municipal government.

Conciliation and arbitration in industrial disputes—a selected list of recent references. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor Library, October 25, 1937. 15 pp.; mimeographed.

Industrial disputes in India, 1929–1936. Delhi, Department of Industries and Labor, 1937. 42 pp. (Bulletin of Indian Industries and Labor, No. 62.)

Gives statistics for the period covered, comments on some of the more important conflicts, a brief account of Indian legislation on industrial disputes, and particulars of important cases settled by conciliation or arbitration without recourse to such legislation.

Labor spy. By "GT–99." New York, Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1937. 309 pp.

This anonymous autobiography deals with the career, over a period of 20 years, of a detective agency operative and informer, employed in the interest of employers of labor, whose success as a labor spy was achieved by his becoming a prominent local leader and officer in the trade-union movement. The volume contains a glossary of words and expressions current in both organized labor and detective-agency fields.

Spy overhead: The story of industrial espionage. By Clinch Calkins. New York, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1937. 363 pp.

An interpretative summary, for the general reader, of hearings before the sub-committee of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor which, under the chairmanship of Senator Robert M. LaFollette, Jr., of Wisconsin, is conducting an investigation into violation of guaranteed rights of free speech and assemblage and interference with the right of labor to organize for collective bargaining, as directed by Senate Resolution No. 266, 74th Congress.

The labor spy racket. By Leo Huberman. New York, Modern Age Books, Inc., 1937. 195 pp., illus.

Transcripts and analyses of testimony before the LaFollette subcommittee of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor in its investigation of industrial espionage, with particular emphasis upon evidence dealing with the activities of labor spies in preventing organization and destroying unions in the plants to which they were assigned.

The seniority problem. (In Labor Relations Bulletin, National Association of Manufacturers, New York, 11 West 42d Street, July 23, 1937, pp. 9–15.)

Reproduces seniority provisions in ten labor-union contracts. The names of the companies are omitted.

International Labor Organization

The International Labor Organization. By William Lonsdale Tayler. (Reprinted from "International institutions and world peace," proceedings of Institute of Public Affairs, Dallas, Tex., April 26–30, 1937; 19 pp.)

Labor Legislation

Federal labor legislation, 1937. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 4 pp. (Serial No. R. 640, reprint from October 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Federal Work-Relief Act of 1937. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 3 pp. (Serial No. R. 628, reprint from September 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

State labor relations acts. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 8 pp. (Serial No. R. 638, reprint from October 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Restrictions on the right to strike. By Buel W. Patch. Washington, 1937. 18 pp. (Editorial Research Reports, Vol. 2, 1937, No. 2.)

Traces legislative restrictions and court decisions on the right to strike, in the United States and foreign countries.

Message of Governor of New York recommending legislation providing for one day of rest for hotel and restaurant workers, and a 48-hour week for women and minors in hotels and restaurants, and for women in certain other occupations. Albany, 1937. 6 pp. (Legislative Document No. 78, 1937.)

La législation suisse en matière de réglementation du travail et d'assurances sociales pendant l'année 1935. Bern, Département Fédéral de l'Économie Publique, 1937. 207 pp. (La Vie Économique, 26e supplément, avril 1937.)

Contains the text, in both German and French, of Federal and cantonal legislation in Switzerland in 1935 covering the regulation of labor and social insurance.

Labor Organizations

Twenty-sixth annual report on labor organization in Canada (for the calendar year 1936). Ottawa, Department of Labor, 1937. 240 pp.

In addition to comprehensive data on Canadian labor unions, there is a section on organized workers throughout the world. Statistics of trade-union membership and trade-union benefits in Canada in 1936, taken from the report, are published in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Report of Registrar of Friendly Societies and Trade-Unions, New South Wales, for 12 months ended June 30, 1936. Sydney, 1937. 29 pp.

Presents membership and financial statistics and text statements giving the salient facts pertaining to legislation and administration.

Berättelse över landsorganisationens i Sverge, år 1936. Stockholm, Landsorganisationen i Sverge, 1937. 536 pp.

Annual report on trade-union activities in Sweden in 1936, including a review of trade-union congresses; a chapter on industrial conditions and developments in the country during the last five years; a detailed report on trade agreements in force; data on industrial disputes and conflicts during 1936; statistics on hourly, daily, and yearly money wages by year from 1913 to 1935, and indexes of real wages for the same years; a review of activities of various educational enterprises of the trade-unions.

Trade-union accounting and financial administration. By A. E. Ward and C. R. Sweetingham. London, Isaac Pitman & Sons, Ltd., 1937. 126 pp., charts, illus.

Descriptive analysis of the accounting systems in use by several of the principal British trade-unions.

Mining Industry

Bituminous coal code, promulgated June 21, 1937. Washington, U. S. National Bituminous Coal Commission, 1937. 12 pp.

Rules of practice and procedure before National Bituminous Coal Commission, promulgated June 23, 1937. Washington, U. S. National Bituminous Coal Commission, 1937. 12 pp.

Twenty-fourth annual report of Colorado State Inspector of Coal Mines, 1936. Denver, 1937. 60 pp., map, folder.

Includes a directory of coal mines, with statistics of production, employment, and accidents.

Annual report of Kansas Coal Mine and Metal Mine Inspection and Mine Rescue Departments, 1936. Topeka, 1937. 68 pp.

Contains directories of mines and statistics of production, employment, and accidents.

Fourteenth annual report of Maryland Bureau of Mines, calendar year 1936. Baltimore, [1937?]. Various paging, illus.

Shows, by mine, the number of employees, days worked, output, mine inspections, and fatal and nonfatal accidents, with descriptions of accidents.

Night Work

Report of departmental [Home Office, Great Britain] committee on night baking. London, Home Office, 1937. 48 pp. (Cmd. 5525.)

The committee making this report was directed to make a recommendation on the desirability of legislation abolishing night work in the baking industry, and to report upon the probable effects of such prohibition upon the public and those engaged in the industry as employers and workers. Taking the position that "legislation to abolish night baking is not in present circumstances desirable," the majority report states that "such advantages as the operatives would gain from the abolition of night baking appear insufficient to justify us in overruling the serious objections raised by the employers, and singling out one industry for so drastic a measure as prohibition of night work."

Occupations

Job descriptions for the laundry industry. Washington, U. S. Employment Service, 1937. xxxvii, 291 pp., illus.

Old-Age Pensions

Teacher retirement systems and social security. Washington, National Education Association, 1937. 61 pp. (Research Bulletin, Vol. XV, No. 3.)

Traces the evolution of teacher retirement systems, analyzes those now in force, and discusses the possibilities of a national system under the Social Security Act.

Memoria anual, 1936–37, [de la] Caja General de Jubilaciones y Pensiones de Empleados y Obreros de Ferrocarriles y Tranvias. Habana, 1937. 121 pp.; mimeographed.

Statistical report on the functioning of the General Retirement and Pension Fund for Salaried and Wage-Earning Employees of Railways and Streetcars in Cuba during the fiscal year 1936–37.

Planning

Recent trends in rural planning. By William E. Cole and Hugh Price Crowe. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937. 579 pp., maps, charts.

The authors favor the development of local and regional planning boards and the coordination of their activities with those of city and national planning boards. There are discussions of the movement of population to and from the country, land-settlement projects in the United States and Europe, and education and recreation planning.

Poultry Industry

Economic survey of live-poultry industry in New York City. By Gordon W. Sprague, Alexander Sturges, and James H. Radabaugh. Washington, U. S. Department of Agriculture, 1937. 115 pp., maps, charts, illus. (Miscellaneous Publication No. 283.)

There is a brief discussion of labor problems peculiar to the industry, with particular reference to union labor and union wage scales.

Prison Labor

Chart and comment on laws affecting the labor of prisoners and the sale and distribution of prison-made products in United States. Washington, U. S. Prison Industries Reorganization Administration, 1937. 8 pp. (Bulletin No. 1.)

Reviewed in this issue.

Recreation

Development of a leisure-time program in small cities and towns. By Ella Gardner. Washington, U. S. Children's Bureau, 1937. 13 pp.; bibliography.

Recreation in South Dakota—a preliminary report. Brookings, State Planning Board, [1937?]. 184 pp., maps, charts, illus.

Covers municipal and rural recreation facilities and activities throughout the State.

Relief Measures and Statistics

Research memorandum on social aspects of relief policies in the depression. By R. Clyde White and Mary K. White. New York, Social Science Research Council, 230 Park Avenue, 1937. 173 pp. (Studies in Social Aspects of the Depression; Bulletin No. 38.)

Points out problems for further research in connection with such subjects as social effects of relief upon the family, upon problems of housing, upon institution populations, upon the labor market, etc.

Men on relief in Lackawanna, N. Y., 1934–35: Social pathology in a satellite city. By Donald Adams Clarke. Buffalo, N. Y., 1937. 48 pp.; bibliography. (University of Buffalo Studies, Vol. XIV, No. 4; Monographs in Social Work, No. 1.)

Describes a group of local unattached men who, though jobless, could not be classified as homeless, and who were receiving aid through the single men's department of the Erie County Emergency Relief Bureau in Lackawanna.

Twenty-fifth annual report of Milwaukee Citizens Committee on Unemployment. Milwaukee, Wis., State Employment Service, 1937. 17 pp.

Gives the receipts and expenditures of the Citizens Committee on Unemployment, and statistics on the activities of the Milwaukee office of the Wisconsin State Employment Service, for the fiscal year 1936–37. The work of the latter office in behalf of the physically disabled is an outstanding feature of the report.

Sixth annual report of Under Secretary, Department of Labor and Industry, Queensland, Australia, upon operations and proceedings under "The Income (Unemployment Relief) Tax Acts, 1930 to 1935," together with financial statements for year ended June 30, 1936. Brisbane, 1936. 82 pp., illus.

Shipping Industry

Labor conditions in Great Lakes shipping. By Orrin R. Mann. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 12 pp. (Serial No. R. 609, reprint from August 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Social Security

Principles of social administration. By T. S. Simey. London, Oxford University Press, 1937. 180 pp.

Traces the historical development and present characteristics and methods of the governmental machinery administering the various public social services in Great Britain.

Report of Committee on Compulsory Insurance [Great Britain]. London, Board of Trade, 1937. 82 pp. (Cmd. 5528.)

The Committee was appointed to report upon desirable changes, if any, in the existing law relating to compulsory insurance against third party risks, covering motor vehicle insurance and aircraft insurance and insurance by employers against liability to their workmen.

Social insurance for industrial workers in India. By S. V. Parulekar. Bombay, Servants of India Society, Bombay Branch, 1937. 56 pp.

The writer describes living and working conditions in India, showing the need for the establishment of a social-insurance system for the workers.

Unemployment Insurance and Benefit Plans

Unemployment-benefit plans in 1937. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 4 pp. (Serial No. R. 636, reprint from October 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Operation of Wisconsin's Unemployment Compensation Act (including benefit administration), through December 1936. Madison, Industrial Commission of Wisconsin, [1937]. 31 pp. (Reprinted from Industrial Commission's 1934–1936 biennial report.)

Report on unemployment insurance in Australia. By Godfrey H. Ince. Canberra, Parliament of the Commonwealth, 1937. 84 pp.

A report, by the chief insurance officer of the British Ministry of Labor, on the advisability of introducing a national unemployment-insurance system in Australia. After making a study of the unemployment problem in the different Australian States, the writer submits a draft of an Australia-wide scheme, and also a draft of an alternative plan embodying a system of State schemes on a uniform basis with a measure of Commonwealth control.

Verslag omtrent de bemoeiingen der gemeente Amsterdam in arbeidszaken en de verzekering tegen werkloosheid in 1936. [Amsterdam, Afdeeling Algemeene Secretarie en Arbeidszaken, 193.?] 114 pp.

Annual report on public unemployment insurance in the city of Amsterdam, Netherlands, in 1936. The subjects covered include legislation, organization, employment and unemployment, benefits, and relief.

Vacations

Survey of vacation plans. (In Labor Relations Bulletin, National Association of Manufacturers, New York, July 23, 1937, pp. 6–7; Sept. 28, 1937, p. 9.)

The article summarizes the reasons leading employers to adopt a plan for successive vacations, followed by a majority of the companies granting paid vacations, and those influencing them to follow the policy of shut-down vacations. Brief descriptions are given of the plans of several large companies.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Hours of labor in the building trades, 1936. By Edward P. Sanford. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 9 pp. (Serial No. R. 633, reprint from October 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Report of departmental [Home Office, Great Britain] committee on hours of employment of young persons in certain unregulated occupations. London, Home Office, 1937. 50 pp. (Cmd. 5394.)

The unregulated occupations with which this study was concerned are those exempted from the provisions of the factory acts and the shop act, covering, chiefly, delivery boys, errand boys, messengers, porters, and warehouse boys, in commercial or industrial establishments; pages and elevator operators in hotels; and ushers in moving-picture theaters, under 18 years of age. In addition to the blind-alley character of some of these occupations, the report found that both hours of work and general employment conditions were unsatisfactory in many cases. The committee recommended 10 hours as the maximum spread of daily hours, with a 5½-day workweek of 48 hours, exclusive of rest and meal periods; prohibition of night work; and regulation of overtime.

Wage payment plans in the manufacture of textiles. New York, Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, Policyholders Service Bureau, [1936?]. 18 pp.

Women in Industry

Women in the economy of the United States of America. By Mary Elizabeth Pidgeon. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, 1937. 137 pp.

A compilation of data submitted by the Women's Bureau to the International Labor Office at the request of 10 national women's organizations in the United States. In attempting a general description of the economic status of American women and their place in the basic economy of the country, the Women's Bureau emphasized occupational trends in relation to job opportunities for women; unemployment; wages and other forms of compensation; industrial relations; family responsibilities of married and single working women; and the effects of regulatory labor legislation on women.

The material presented in the bulletin is in large part summaries of published and unpublished studies and reports of the Women's Bureau. Other sources drawn upon include other divisions of the United States Department of Labor, State labor departments, public and private welfare agencies, and studies made by various organizations and individuals.

The home in transition. By Grace Loucks Elliott. New York, Council for Social Action of Congregational and Christian Churches, 289 Fourth Avenue, 1937. (In Social Action, Oct. 15, 1937; 30 pp., illus.)

A discussion of the personal, family, and social adjustments necessitated by the radical changes in women's work both inside and outside the home.

General Reports

Statistisches handbuch für den bundestaat Österreich. Vienna, Bundesamt für Statistik, 1937. Various paging.

Includes information on social-welfare work, housing, public health, social insurance, trade agreements, unemployment, employment service, and wages, in Austria.

Statistisk aarbog [*Denmark*], *1937.* Copenhagen, Statistiske Departement, 1937. 287 pp. (In Danish and French.)

The statistics cover number of workers and value of production in industrial establishments, by industry; unemployment; wages; labor disputes; industrial accidents; labor organization; work of employment offices; social insurance; cooperative societies; prices; cost of living; family budgets; and many other topics. The data on retail prices, cost of living, and wages of agricultural workers and seamen are brought down to 1937, but the figures on the other subjects are for 1936 or earlier years.

Annuaire statistique [*France*], *1936.* Paris, Direction de la Statistique Générale et de la Documentation, 1937. Various paging.

Contains data on education; public assistance to children, to the aged and infirm, and to large families; trade-union membership; number of workers, classified by industry; cooperative associations; wages and hours; and social insurance.

Annuaire statistique de la Grèce, 1936. Athens, Statistique Générale de la Grèce, 1937. 540 pp. (In Greek and French.)

Prices, number of employees in industrial enterprises, education, and social insurance are among the matters covered.

Annuario statistico Italiano, anno 1937. Rome, Istituto Centrale di Statistica del Regno d'Italia, 1937. Various paging.

Statistics through 1935 or 1936 on cost of living, quantity of various foods consumed per person per year, wages, number of workers by industries, number of women and minors in industry, internal labor migration, and social insurance. An appendix presents figures for the different countries of the world, showing area, population, agricultural and industrial production, wages, cost of living, and unemployment.

Statistisk årbok for Norge, 1937. Oslo, Statistiske Centralbyrå, 1937. 329 pp.

This statistical yearbook for Norway contains data on employment, unemployment among members of trade-unions, work of employment offices, wages of agricultural and industrial workers, strikes and lock-outs, collective agreements, trade-union membership, social insurance, prices and cost of living, cooperative societies, and other subjects of general interest.

Concise statistical year book of Poland, 1937. Warsaw, Chief Bureau of Statistics, 1937. 354 pp., map. (In English.)

There is a comprehensive chapter on labor, which includes data on income and wages, working hours, vacations, collective agreements, labor organizations, strikes and lock-outs, labor turn-over, family budgets, etc. Other sections are devoted to building and housing, national income, cooperative societies, prices, social welfare, and insurance. The prices are brought down to April 1937, but on the other topics mentioned the statistics are for 1936 or earlier years.

Statistical abstract for Tokyo, 1935. Tokyo, Municipal Office, Bureau of Statistics, 1937. 177 pp., map.

The subjects covered include results of a labor census, ages of workers, hours of labor, wages, labor disputes, trade-unions, labor exchanges, unemployment, relief work, industrial training and workers' education, housing, and loans for workers. Some of the statistics are for 1936; the wage data are for 1935 and earlier years.

World economic review, 1936: Part I, United States. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, 1937. 114 pp., charts.

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